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ABSTRACT

Scholars trained to deal with the Soviet realm or more generally with the communist phenomenon have not typically included the DDR within their purview. A study of East German educational systems is of value since the decisions any society makes about its own educational system are revealing indicators both of where the society has been and where it is going and is of value to politicians, educators, and social scientists. This document covers East German postwar reconstruction and Soviet occupation; the higher education establishment, including routes to higher education, the worker's and peasants, faculties, teacher training, adult education, foreign students, religious education, military education, the state; the party and higher education, including, the constitutional basis, state and party apparatus, academic institutions of the Socialist Unity Party (SED), the Free German Trade Union Federation (FDGB), and the Free German Youth Research (FDJ); higher educational policy; the new reform movement; higher education and the economy; scholarship and research; and conclusions. Appendices contain a bibliography, academic credentials, statistical chronology and related documents. (Author/KE)

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HIGHER EDUCATION IN
EAST GERMANY

by

Lyman H. Legters

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Several of my research assistants at the University of Washington have contributed to this work, among their varied duties, over the past two years. I single out Mr. David Lester for particular mention, since he was most directly involved in the final stages of research and writing.

The project was carried out under a contract with the U.S. Office of Education. Neither it nor its officials bear any responsibility for the findings. But the officials directly concerned with this contract, particularly Dr. Seymour Rosen, have earned my thanks, not only for encouraging me to undertake the study, but also for their understanding of the subject and of the research problems which it posed.

L. H. L.

TERMINOLOGY AND ABBREVIATIONS

The rendering of German educational terms in English poses many problems. Both the traditional German pattern and the innovations introduced in the GDR fail to correspond in any convenient way to American terminology. The most accurate solution would be to use the German terms, but that practice tends to disfigure the text. On the other hand, it is altogether misleading to invent, as is sometimes done, a direct correspondence between the American hierarchy of academic ranks and the designations used in German universities for different kinds of appointments. Where it is not an obstacle to the reader, I have used such German terms as "rector," "habilitation," "dozent," and "abitur," since these have no English equivalents. "Dekan" is roughly the same as "dean"; "Hochschule" corresponds generally to "college"; "Lehrplan" usually approximates "curriculum"; and I have used such generally satisfactory translations where possible. "Fachschule" I have somewhat arbitrarily rendered as "technical college," irrespective of university standing. I have not attempted to include the full string of academic titles that precede the names of professors in German, nor have I differentiated among types of professorial appointments. "Wissenschaft" can mean either science or scholarship, as we use those terms, and the adjectival variant "wissenschaftlich" is sometimes best rendered as "academic," depending on context. Where more intricate problems of translation arise, they are explained in footnotes. All translations of quoted passages and appended documents are mine, unless otherwise indicated.

Those terms that are used in abbreviated form in the text are spelled out in their first appearance. But for ease of reference the ones that appear most frequently are listed below:

GDR - German Democratic Republic
SMAD - Soviet Military Administration in Germany
SBZ - Soviet Occupation Zone
SED - Socialist Unity Party
FDGB - Free German Trade Union Federation
FDJ - Free German Youth

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PREFACE

Among the many reasons for undertaking a study of East German higher education, perhaps the least compelling is the conventional mountain climber's explanation of his activity: the mere fact that it is there and, in this case, has not been covered in the English-language literature on the subject. Taken by itself, the topic scarcely arouses a sense of urgency or of outstanding importance. Several contextual relationships, all of them doubtless conditioned by the author's personal inclinations, add substantially to the justification for devoting sustained attention to higher education in the Deutsche Demokratische Republik (DDR).

To begin with, East Germany is a woefully neglected subject in American scholarship. A recently completed survey by the American Council of Learned Societies of the state of American research and teaching on the entire region of Eastern Europe documents the thesis that these countries, formerly spoken of as Soviet satellites, have not shared fully in the upsurge of foreign area or "non-western" studies in the United States since World War II.[1] While instructional and research programs dealing with East and South Asia, with Africa and Latin America, have grown and proliferated, the corresponding programs on Eastern Europe have been dominated by Russian and Soviet studies. A goodly share of the explanation lies precisely in the word "satellite." For the prevailing assumption that regulated the development of Russian and East European programs was that these satellites were best, or at least sufficiently, understood in the context of Soviet external relations. In this respect, Tito's independent course seems to have been overshadowed by the simultaneous extension and consolidation of Soviet hegemony throughout the rest of this belt of countries extending from Poland to Bulgaria. And it was not until the implications of 1956 were absorbed into American academic consciousness that Eastern Europe began to receive more concerted attention apart from the Soviet Union.[2] Now finally, although Russia and Eastern Europe remain connected within many academic programs, the non-Russian parts of the area are coming into their own as rewarding subjects of scholarly effort.

The East German case is simply an extension and intensification of the situation just described. To the extent that interest in Soviet policy directed attention to East Germany, that territory was under Soviet occupation and thus more firmly -- in a sense also more legitimately -- under Soviet control than were the other client states to the west of the Soviet Union. On the other hand, to the extent that interest in the postwar evolution of Germany also embraced Soviet-occupied East Germany, the standard assumptions about, and tenacious faith in, reunification made East German conditions seem evanescent and directed scholarly attention to the more accessible (and genuinely fascinating) developments in West Germany and West Berlin. Both perspectives proved deceptive, for contemporary East Germany cannot be understood either as a product of Soviet occupation policies or as a somewhat distorted rump-society presently to be absorbed, with greater or lesser digestive consequences, into the familiar social and political configurations of the West German Bundesrepublik.

An academic peculiarity has added to this explanation of the neglect of East Germany. Scholars trained to deal with the Soviet realm, or more generally with communist phenomena, have not typically included the DDR within their purview, probably because its status seemed likely to change but perhaps also because of simple lack of familiarity with things German. And those scholars for whom Germany was the habitual subject of attention either found little of interest in the DDR or regarded it as a communist phenomenon increasingly divorced from the familiar German intellectual traditions and social patterns. Consequently, our knowledge of developments in East Germany has depended to an unusual degree on journalistic accounts. Many of these have been excellent -- alert to new trends and sensitive to the peculiarities of the East German situation. But by the nature of their profession, newspapermen are most alive to strictly current and local occurrences. And our reliance on journalistic reporting, however good it may have been in its own terms, has made us particularly susceptible to the deceptive perspectives of current policy, cold war confrontation, and the like.

Thus, we have in the DDR a veritable terra incognita so far as scholarly literature in English is concerned. We probably know less about it than we do about Poland, or Korea, or Pakistan. It is, thus, the most neglected country in what is probably the most neglected of the major world areas.

But if scholarly neglect has been established, why then focus on higher education among the many aspects of East German society needing attention? There are at least two reasons, largely unrelated to each other, for this choice.

One is found in the nature of communist systems as subjects of scholarly investigation. A straightforward inquiry into the vital processes of politics, society, and economy is, in the case of communist systems, likely to encounter insuperable obstacles. The critical issues--decision-making, allocation of social resources, theoretical and practical bases of policy, and networks of personal interaction among rulers or leaders -- are often shrouded in secrecy. The investigator has to work around security blackouts and deliberate obfuscation or deception. In the East German case, for example, research into the processes of policy formulation within the Socialist Unity Party (*Sozialistische Einheitspartei* - SED) encounters both systematic secrecy and, in the publicly available sources, a great deal of misleading rhetoric.

Accordingly, it is sometimes more fruitful to study less sensitive areas of social life. Such subjects as education, cultural life, and the arts are not only less encumbered by sensitivity; they are also viewed oftentimes as adornments of a society that is achieving its goals and are therefore surrounded by a comparative wealth of information. Boastful rhetoric still has to be discounted at times, but such subjects are at least free of morbid anxiety about revealing state secrets. Yet these subjects do disclose information about the way in which a given society allocates its resources and about some of the priorities of official policy. It is possible, then, for studies of intellectual and cultural life to dig deeper at times into fundamental questions of how a communist society functions than do inquiries into the seemingly more central issues of politics and economy. I hasten to add that this is a justification for a neglected type of research, not a claim for the particular study at hand. But it is certainly true that manpower problems and the need for an enlarged pool of trained intelligence in the industrial growth of the DDR make its system of higher education particularly crucial to an understanding of that country's dynamic.

The other reason for choosing this subject resides in the nature of the educational process, irrespective of the style of rule, state of development, or ideological underpinnings of a particular society. Increasingly in recent years we have come to the realization that the decisions any society makes about its own educational system are revealing indicators, both of where the society has been and of where it is going.[3] The state of an educational system tells us much about the previous development and life style of the society to which it belongs. And trends of continuity and change in the educational process afford a glimpse at least of what will be possible or likely for that society as it unfolds in future.

A corollary of this realization is that the study of educational systems and processes does not belong exclusively to educational specialists. Historians and social scientists have much to learn from and much to contribute to the subject.[4] Especially is this so in the study of cultures and societies outside the mainstream of West European and North American experience. The greater the differences, ideological and cultural, between our own society and another which we seek to understand, the more imperative it is that we grasp the fashion in which that alien society prepares its young people to function, both privately and publicly, as adults and citizens.

Preface: Footnotes

1. Charles Jelavich (ed.): *Language and Area Studies; East Central and Southeastern Europe: A Survey* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1969).
2. I have developed this argument more fully in "The Monolithic Myth," *Saturday Review*, 3 February 1968, pp. 61-63.
3. For two well-reasoned examples of this realization see Theodore W. Schultz: *The Economic Value of Education* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1963); James S. Coleman (ed.): *Education and Political Development* (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1965), especially the introductory essay by Coleman, pp. 3-32.
4. In a work as modest as this one is, it requires some audacity to mention Werner Jaeger and his *Paideia: the Ideals of Greek Culture* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1943-5), but it would be difficult to find a more compelling example of fruitful interaction between the subject of education and the discipline of history.

Chapter I

INTRODUCTION: POSTWAR RECONSTRUCTION

The German higher educational establishment was left at the end of World War II a victim of two kinds of devastation. The more conspicuous kind, physical destruction of facilities and personnel, was general but also somewhat variable from one place to another. The subtler form, the intellectual and spiritual legacy of twelve years of Nazi rule, was more evenly spread over the universities throughout Germany, though it was not of course so readily measurable as was the outright physical destruction. The occupation powers, addressing themselves with remarkable alacrity to the restoration of higher educational facilities and services, inherited in equal measure the problem of exorcising Nazi influence. The Soviet Zone of Occupation, on the other hand, probably suffered a disproportionate level of material loss, owing to the intensity of fighting in that part of Germany.

A measure of historical perspective is needed to appreciate the several facets of malaise confronting those concerned with German higher education after the nation's surrender in 1945. The intellectual crisis that had reached one sort of culmination in the Hitler era, and which was to be resolved in different ways in the two parts of Germany after 1945, had roots going back well beyond the Nazi period and involving rather more than just the German university tradition. The superimposition of

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national, cultural, and linguistic boundaries on the academic community of premodern Europe -- a community that moved with comparative ease from place to place, owed its loyalty to a religiously bound but otherwise cosmopolitan conception of learning, and spoke Latin as lingua franca -- produced a new kind of concern about the relation between scholarship and society. The problem was dealt with differently in different national societies, but in most of them it was resolved only for comparatively brief periods of time. The growing tempo of social change, coupled with the increasing density of international and cross-cultural relationships, heightened the sense of dependence on education in general and on universities in particular. As Franz Neumann put it, "a new phenomenon occurs within the modern nation-state: the bureaucratization of modern society and, with it, the trend to transform the intellectual into a functionary of society." [1] The Socratic element in the western tradition of higher learning thus begins to give way, gradually and never completely to be sure, to the claims of a society that sustains the educational establishment.

Where the prerogatives and emoluments of university status (for both students and professors) are high and where higher education is a conspicuous route to social and economic advancement, society is able to exert its claims in subtle, largely non-coercive ways, for higher education tends to enter into the relationship in a consenting posture. This was certainly the case in post-

Bismarckian Germany. No western academic community registered more impressive achievements in the Socratic tradition of disinterested inquiry. Yet the effort to adjust higher education to the needs and challenges of a modernizing society produced, precisely in Germany, two thoroughly modern traits: the exclusion from the academic community of the most radical critics of society, chiefly the Marxists; and the unleashing within scholarly ranks of a highly charged ideological debate concerning the proper relationship of the university to its parent society.[2] The resulting attenuation of professorial consensus, a notable feature of Weimar Germany, thus encapsulated a course of academic development common to western societies as well as a set of moral and intellectual disagreements specific to German experience. It left the German university world disunited and incapable of taking a concerted position just when the threat of revolution became most acute.

Among contending ideologies and social policies that were yet in agreement about the desirability of preserving the existing order, there was no place for the extremist solutions offered by either Marxist-Leninists or National Socialists. However much grist the German universities provided for Hitler's mill, before 1933 as well as after, it would be a profound misunderstanding to suppose that the academic world welcomed Nazism. Like the other social institutions of Weimar Germany, higher education contained some Nazi sympathizers, but its failure to resist a profoundly anti-intellectual revolution has far more to do with the fear , cynicism, despair, and demoralization noted by many observers than it has to do with outright subversion.

The flavor of National Socialist views of higher education can be conveyed rather easily without examining the whole period from 1933 to 1945. The Nazi goal for higher education was expressed in 1933, at a time when the socialist component of National Socialism was still taken seriously, in the following abstract terms:

> During the nineteenth century, the ideal of the harmonious man, as classic liberalism viewed it, gradually degenerated into the one-sidedness of specialists who no longer had any true connection with the community....The university itself, and with it its teachers and partly even its students, lost all relationship to the people and the state.
>
> To this bourgois ideal Marxism counterposed yet another, that of the proletarian, who likewise had no relationship to blood and soil. The class struggle between bourgeoisie and proletariat necessarily had to arise from the confrontation between these two ideals....
>
> Only National Socialism, which grew out of the life at the front during the war, could bring a change...If the Volk community is to become a reality, every generation must wrestle anew for the soul of the rest of the people.
>
> To lay the foundation for this is the socialist task of education and of the educators, last but

> not least at the university level. The liberal university has not yet been entirely overcome; the majority of university teachers intellectually still represent the educational ideal of classic liberalism. The opposition between youth and university cannot be -- nor should it be -- overcome until the university has recognized its great political and socialist mission and is actively engaged in achieving it.
>
> Our aim is to gather the student body into unified and serried ranks. The student body itself can fulfill its task only if this reconstruction is carried out in its own ranks with all severity and consistence....Intellectual abilities are not the only standard for admission to university studies; rather, above all, the value of an individual for the people as a whole -- for the state. In the future we must no longer look upon it as merely a right, but also as a duty, to determine at frequent intervals to what extent the individual student fulfills these requirements. [3]

A few years later the Nazi party could look back on its efforts in higher education and speak of a special National Socialist conception of academic freedom, as this was enunciated in 1939 at a meeting of the Association of University Lecturers:

> The National Socialist movement seized power

in Germany on January 30, 1933. By means of a few highly effective measures, the movement removed what was useless and created what was necessary to exercise this power. It would have been easy also to transform the external and formal elements of the universities. This was not done, not so much because the external form of the university appeared inaccessible or even useless, but because the movement discerned that before anything else the men who lived and worked under these forms had to undergo a transformation. In fact, neither governmental or other administrative regulations nor other organizational measures and decrees can bring forth a National Socialist University. This can be achieved only by molding the living forces that are the heart of a university. Hence the reorganization of the entire university system must not begin with exterior measures; it must begin precisely where the university heretofore has failed: with the human being. The reformation of men, however (or, with respect to our field, perhaps better expressed as the development of a truly National Socialist body of teachers and the creation of a truly German scholar), has been left by the Führer for all time to the party, which must imbue all sectors of public life, including the universities, with its ideology.

It followed of course that academic freedom consisted in "nothing else but responsible service on behalf of the basic values of our being as a Volk." [4]

These programmatic statements remind unavoidably of what is still the most pertinent definition of totalitarianism, a short formulation by Franz Neumann that has not been improved upon by subsequent lengthy studies: "The totalitarian state -- and herein lies the difference between it and absolutism -- is not and cannot be satisfied with the control of the traditional means of coercion. It must, if it wants to exist as a dictatorial system, completely control man's thoughts, and it must thus transform culture into propaganda." [5] But what of National Socialist reality? Nazi pronouncements leave no doubt that a transformation of the human being and his society was the professed goal of the movement. The historical record suggests that Hitler's regime proceeded much less systematically than that of Stalin or Mao to work a fundamental transformation. Indeed, there was only one ideological position that was pursued in such uncompromising fashion as to suggest a genuinely revolutionary elan: that was antisemitism and, ultimately, a policy of extermination, which of course had the direst consequences for higher education and scholarship. But otherwise it is hard to find evidence for the kind of social transformation that distinguishes revolutions from mere transfers of power, however destructive the latter phenomenon may be and in the present case was.

What actually happened in Nazi Germany was a compromise between the ideological presuppositions of the movements that had come to power and the social fabric with which it had to work. On such points as anti-semitism, the regime was unyielding; but the socialist part of the platform soon revealed itself, by contrast, as an eminently pragmatic item, exchangeable for the collaboration of the favored segments of German society. In short, German society was subjected to a tyranny of variable efficiency, with an unquestioned capacity for cruel and single-minded pursuit of those aims that mattered but with an equal capacity for vacillation in marginal questions, a vacillation that may signify weakness under other conditions but which in Nazi Germany was itself a sign of arbitrary efficacy.

Higher education was, accordingly, not transformed in the fashion suggested by positive Nazi goals. It was merely degraded. The degradation took several forms: the university lost a goodly measure of the autonomy that was real, as distinct from that portion that had always been fictional, in such matters as curriculum and appointments; it became partially instrumentalized with regard to those functions that were supported by the regime; it lost status in the overall assignment of priorities in National Socialist society; and it witnessed two kinds of secession from its midst -- the voluntary emigration of some of its finest scholars and the involuntary removal of individuals who were an affront to Nazi ideology -- a process that robbed it not only of much intellectual capital but also of its self-respect.

A few data will suffice to illustrate the several aspects of spiritual destruction. In the peacetime period of Nazi rule, the period that lends itself best to any assessment of social revolution, higher educational enrollments dropped from 97,576 in 1932 to 51,527 in 1938. The corresponding figures for women were 18,578 and 6,346. As Neumann concludes, this was a reflection of policy; "the university," he wrote in 1942, "is no longer the crux of the educational system after all." [6] Enrollments in technical schools declined during the same period, though not so sharply. But when official policy encouraged a renewed emphasis on higher education, it was the technical school that gained, and in a very marked degree, for it was the type of training offered by technical colleges that had most immediate application in the central planning of the Third Reich. [7] At the same time, the available data on social origins of students suggests that shifts were far too slight to indicate any significant transformation of German society. [8] During the same years, the number of full professors (Ordinarien) dropped to 71% of the pre-Nazi period and of other university teachers to 67% of 1931-32. [9] While the overall decline was spread quite evenly over the university faculties, law was especially disadvantaged while medicine, veterinary medicine, forestry, and other technical fields showed gains. Related trends of interest included a drop in average age of professors at time of appointment and a substantial rise in the proportion of professorial appointments falling to persons of lesser social prestige.[10] But what emerges clearly is not that the university was revolutionized, only that it lost importance under Nazi rule.

The most permanent loss to German higher education was not in the realm of academic freedom and the freedom of inquiry at all. Without minimizing the loss of contact with world scholarship or the loss of professional self-respect among those who remained at their academic posts without endorsing official ideology, Nazi teaching has not proved to be an enduring intellectual style or substitute therefor. The German academy demonstrated, in West Germany, that it could return to pre-Nazi habits and predispositions without discernible ideological strain; and also that it could, given time and public support, catch up with the advances that scholarship had recorded elsewhere between 1933 and 1945. The most telling loss, then, was in the departure, through emigration or liquidation, of many of the finest scholarly minds that the German university had produced. (It should be noted too that this process did not end in 1945: many more outstanding scientists were encouraged, by the Russians and the western allies alike, to leave Germany in one direction or the other, and some had little choice in the matter.) It is Franz Neumann again who has pointed out that the Nazi-induced emigration was different from earlier ones in that it was felt to be permanent, given the transformation that Nazi rule seemed to be working in Germany, and not just a waiting period in exile.[11] A university system can recover rapidly from ideological subversion; it takes a much longer time to replace the best part of a generation of scholars. It is probably pertinent to interject at this point the observation that West Germany suffered more from such losses than East Germany, not because the losses of academic personnel fell into a geographic pattern but because the West German universities sought more deliberately to return to a pre-Nazi condition. The East German universities, existing under a regime committed to radical social transformation, looked less to the German academic tradition of Weimar and before than to the model offered by the Soviet Union, a system of higher education ostensibly tailored to assist in the realization of a revolutionary program. This does not mean that the East German universities were well endowed with highly qualified scholars, but only that they were, at an increasing rate as the East German state came into being, more selective in regard to political orientation of professors and, at the same time, receptive to a Marxist-Leninist persuasion that had been anything but predominant in the group of scholars in exile from or eliminated by the Third Reich.

Since this amounts to saying that, while West German universities sought to restore the liberal academic tradition, their eastern counterparts were as critical of this tradition as the Nazis had been, a further explanatory note is called for. Not only did the East German authorities repudiate the liberal tradition associated in their outlook with bourgeois capitalism; they also, in the course of evolving a system of higher education, introduced a number of policies and measures bearing a marked resemblance to those imposed on universities between 1933 and 1945. Most striking perhaps is the subordination of free inquiry to an officially endorsed and propagated ideology.[12] But hand in hand with that went a careful adjustment of educational priorities to the needs of the state; a deliberate favoring of technical and work-oriented styles in higher education; and an explicit allocation to the leading political party of a dominant role in molding the content and techniques of academic pursuits, whether in the laboratory, the library, or the classroom. Such similarities tend to obliterate equally important differences, especially in the minds of those committed to the classical western patterns of university life. This liberal academic ideal thus obscures not only the ideological implications and interest-serving qualities of its own prescription for higher education but also the significant differences among systems that may have in common little more than a repudiation of that prescription.[13]

The critical factor distinguishing National Socialist from Marxist-Leninist educational conceptions is the seriousness with which the two outlooks respectively strive for a genuine social revolution. Admittedly a slippery criterion, this watershed between the Hitlerian and the Marxist-Leninist approaches to the social order is perhaps nowhere clearer than in higher educational policy. Although to the outside observer the two approaches share the tendency to "transform culture into propaganda," a tendency visible in their equal sensitivity about ideological correctness, one does not have to be committed to a social revolutionary goal to see that higher education plays a more central role in East Germany than it did in Nazi Germany. National Socialist policy amounted finally to an extreme diminution of the function of the universities through the elevation of other, essentially anti-intellectual values, accompanied by very modest alteration in the social composition and accessibility of higher education. The Nazis were systematic in their antisemitism and in their prophylaxis where potential or actual political opposition could be detected. Demonic in the exercise of power, they were yet largely pragmatic in the way they tinkered with the social order and the interests embedded therein.[14]

In East Germany, on the other hand, higher education enjoys great importance precisely because it is a crucial instrument for a projected social transformation. Whether or not one likes either the Marxist-Leninist goal or the means employed to reach it, East German educational policies and practices make sense only in terms of a serious commitment to a refashioning of society and, ultimately, to the generation of new values. One may judge the goals to be utopian, or the means chosen for the purpose to be unequal to the challenge; one cannot, however, dismiss ideological professions as a mere smokescreen and still hope to understand the elaborate structural reforms and continued emphasis on positive acceptance of Marxist-Leninist doctrines that characterize East German higher education.

Soviet Occupation

The legacy of war itself, as distinct from the legacy of Nazi depradations in the realm of academic manpower, was the sheer physical devastation of higher educational plant and facilities. Since the universities had been largely emptied of students and faculty by wartime personnel needs, the bombings and military actions that destroyed such quantities of plant and equipment did not have an equal effect on academic personnel. Yet some older faculty and staff were victims of bombardment, along with the libraries and laboratories they were tending.

In Leipzig, for example, bombings cost the university 70 of its 92 institutes and clinics; virtually the whole library of the philosophical faculty was destroyed, as was 70% of the library of mathematics and natural science.[15] Halle, on the other hand, was spared serious damage to its university and, like Leipzig, could choose a new rector while American troops were still there and hope for an early resumption of teaching. The University of Jena remained intact until the last three months of the war, and then bombings destroyed some 12% of the institution's facilities, burying some distinguished older professors in the ruins of the university library.[16] The University of Berlin suffered the loss of more than 50% of its buildings, partly in the bombings and partly in the artillery bombardment and street fighting that marked the Soviet conquest of the city.[17] But the Technical College in Dresden was undoubtedly the most seriously damaged by the war, specifically by the large-scale Allied bombing attack which reduced 80% of the college to ruins.[18] Given the small number of higher educational institutions in the SBZ, the heavy damage to three of its largest universities -- Berlin, Leipzig, and Dresden -- was all the more serious. Since two universities of the eastern part of Germany -- Breslau and Königsberg -- now lay outside German territorial jurisdiction, the physical basis for a renewal of higher education was small indeed.

The structure that developed under Soviet aegis in 1945 consisted, so far as higher education was concerned, of a Central Administration for Education under the direction of Paul Wandel, a communist of long standing, and the provincial administrations, all operating under close supervision of the SMAD. Formally speaking, the universities fell under the jurisdiction of their respective provincial governments, but the political reality was that the Central Administration, besides being assigned full responsibility for the University of Berlin, exercised a dominant role in carrying out Soviet and eventually SED educational policy. In addition, the SMAD included education officers, some of them able and well-informed, [19] who remained in the background at times but could also intervene directly when they chose in the affairs of the universities.

As the universities reopened -- Jena was the first in the fall of 1945 but was then closed again because some of its students offended the SMAD [20] -- they did so under the Soviet slogan of a democratization of German higher education. This aim could be, and was, variously interpreted. The Berlin University, for example, became notorious for the politicization imposed by its rector, Prof. Rompe (also Wandel's deputy for higher education in the Central Administration), whose arbitrary actions in regard to student viewpoints and their expression had more than a little to do with the formation of a Free University in West Berlin. On the other hand, many respectable academics who had no connection with communism found the goal of democratization a healthy one. Theodor Litt, for example, could justify, for a time at least, the need to accord children of workers a kind of compensatory privilege in admissions policy, not just for the sake of the students so favored but also for the sake of genuine university reform. The balance that can be drawn now with the benefit of hindsight is that Soviet educational policy, and therewith the policy of the SED (formed in spring 1946 by merger of communists and social democrats), was set squarely against the traditions of German society and higher education in particular, but that it included at this stage no fully developed picture of positive results to be achieved. No outright enemies of the Soviet Union or of socialism were to be tolerated -- and the measures used for identification were undoubtedly crude. But "sovietization" is a term that applies only later. Soviet educational experience seemed pertinent, and the educational officers attached to the universities were not unnaturally disposed to draw on that experience; yet there was no schematic attempt to transform the traditional structure. Marxism-Leninism was to have an assured place in the curriculum, but no demand was made at this point for an intellectual monopoly, or for systematic imposition of Marxist-Leninist principles in society or education.[21] And withal, the SMAD was anxious to rebuild the universities.

The dilemma that beset both the SMAD and the Central Administration for Education arose out of the determination to change the social composition of higher education, not at this point as a step toward socialism but still as part of the effort to stamp out the conservative Prussian tradition responsible for preserving higher education for the privileged segments of society. The Russians and the German officials were at one in wishing to open university education to everyone, a promise written into provincial constitutions in 1947 and enunciated as the goal of the Central Administration that within half a decade "the majority of University Students should be from the working classes." [22] But to achieve the aim meant either to disadvantage qualified students from the wrong social background or to enlarge academic capacity substantially. The outcome had something of each solution in it.

But the aspect of official policy that aroused the most immediate response was a combination of compensatory privilege for working class students and newly installed professors and of harsh penalties for all who protested. Discontent with policy was one sure indication, as far as the official position was concerned, of inadequate antifascist conviction, and the penalties were severe. It would be most unfair to many of the protesting students to credit the official verdict that they were insufficiently imbued with democratic principles. For the most part the protesters were acting precisely in behalf of democratic and legal principles. They saw not the first steps of a social transformation (however they might have felt about the one that ensued) but rather a return to an arbitrariness and disdain for the equal application of laws that they knew all too well from the period just passed. Along with numerous imprisonments and still more frequent dismissals from universities, the dramatic result was a secession of major importance.

The founding of the Free University in West Berlin, a breakaway chiefly from the old University of Berlin in the eastern sector of the city, was at once a reproach to Soviet and SED practices in regard to higher education and a serious loss of academic strength. The secession came at a time when the cold war was intensifying, and it provided a tangible example of discontent with Soviet policies in the SBZ while dramatizing the oppression that had befallen many students and faculty who were not in sympathy with the particular form of politicization that prevailed in East Germany.

The principal grounds for student dissatisfaction -- and it was student initiative that was decisive in this episode -- were the policy of favoring the admission of working class students (perhaps the most defensible of the Soviet educational policies involved here), the SED attempt to monopolize control of student organizations, the introduction of academically unqualified persons to provide instruction in obligatory courses on contemporary politics, and the brutal treatment of those students who resisted the communist line in any public way.[23] The notion of founding a new university in West Berlin where it could be free of communist influence was bruited about for many months, usually encountering skepticism over the practicality of the idea. Yet against the background of growing strain in the postwar alliance and with the decisive impulse given by student protests carried out at great risk to the participants, it proved to be a comparatively swift process to establish the Free University. It began in April 1948 in earnest, and by fall the first lectures were given. The leadership of Ernst Reuter [24] and the collaboration of the western powers, notably the Americans in whose sector the new institution was domiciled, were sufficient to overcome the profound hindrances -- such as the lack of library resources, shortage of space, and fragmentary faculty coverage -- that had made the scheme appear so unrealistic. Although only some 2,000 students could be accommodated at first, over 20% of them from the SBZ, it was the 5,000 applicants that constituted a kind of plebiscite justifying the academic secession. [25] As an institution that continued for several years to be open to numbers of students from the Soviet Zone, the Free University continued to stand as a reproach to Soviet educational policy in the SBZ. It was only in 1953 that the student revolt against political control of the university was overshadowed by a second revolt, that of the workers in East Berlin.

After 1948 the protest of East German academics continued in a less dramatic way as part of the flight to the west. The numbers fluctuated in terms of what was happening in higher education, but in the first nine months of 1958, for example, after the SED's Third University Conference had proclaimed further socialization of the universities, over a thousand students and nearly 200 teaching personnel from higher education registered as refugees in West Berlin. [26] This kind of drain from the academic community posed the GDR a serious problem until 1961 by intensifying the already acute difficulty of staffing educational and research institutions with qualified personnel.

Jean Edward Smith summarizes the effects of post-war educational policy this way: "First, there were insufficient workers' and farmers' children qualified to do higher study. Second, the exclusion contributed immeasurably to the exodus of qualified people from the East: 'If our children can't go to school here, why should we stay?' Third, it threatened to alienate all intellectuals and professionals, regardless of political belief. And the Soviet Zone, unlike the Soviet Union, was not large enough to endure that alienation." Smith interviewed Paul Wandel much later and got a kind of East German epitaph on the whole period:

> "Yes, we made a lot of mistakes in the early days. We did not yet know what it meant to govern a state. We were too theoretical. We did not appreciate sufficiently that a state needs more than workers and farmers; that it needs the loyalty of all its citizens.
>
> In fact, we learned two things. First, that

> the exclusion measure was unwise and threatened to give the entire educational reform a bad name. Second, that the introduction of socialism into Germany had to take account of German traditions and habits. Notice how carefully we moved in agriculture, for example, or regarding private ownership." [27]

It could of course be added that Wandel lost his leading position for being too lenient in pushing the East German cultural policy, but much of what he said to Smith has the ring of truth. The SED did learn and become more circumspect in approaching goals that would be unpopular.

The more constructive side of the story can be told by citing some examples of higher educational development in the occupation period. At the Mining Academy in Freiberg, for instance, one observer compared the situation in 1957-58 with the one that had prevailed ten years earlier. Enrollments had increased tenfold over the 150 present when the Academy reopened, and over half of the students were children of workers and peasants. The faculty had been expanded substantially and a third faculty for engineering economics had been added, not to mention the Workers' and Peasants' Faculty. Four new institutes had been erected as research centers, and the resources for research had become generous. The price for all of this, of course, was the loss of autonomy to a system of state and party direction and the substitution of centrally-directed training for education in the traditional sense.[28]

A similar study of the University of Greifswald showed a number of significant changes, not least the dismantling of the law faculty and the utilization of the medical faculty as a training center for military medicine. It cites the words of the then rector, Heinrich Borris, who had written that his university had "like all of our universities the primary task of educating and training qualified cadres in the numbers required to meet the economic plan." Its important secondary task was to "convey new research findings not only to the academic world but also and above all to the institutions of the state interested in such results." It followed, as the study demonstrates, that Greifswald had come fully under the direction of the State Secretariat, which coordinated the university's scientific work, approved all course plans, and named professors and dozents to their positions. The author, Friedrich Schubel, also found that Greifswald students were organized in seminar groups of 20-30 that lasted throughout the years of study and were headed by secretaries who kept books on student performance in regard to scholarly assignments and study discipline. After citing the great amount of investment in facilities for the natural sciences, Schubel shows how the academic disciplines had by 1958 been influenced by official priorities: the medical faculty with its 18 clinics and institutes had 22 faculty members, 13 of them Ordinarien; the mathematics and natural science faculty with its 18 institutes had 28 teaching personnel, 16 of whom were Ordinarien; the theological faculty had 9 teachers, four of them Ordinarien; and the philosophical faculty with its 17 institutes had 13 faculty members, only two of whom were Ordinarien.[29]

In Leipzig the difficulties began when the university administration decided not to open its doors because the expulsions of faculty had made instruction impossible. When the Soviet authorities refused to modify their program of sanitizing the university, the rector, originally elected while American troops were still in occupation, resigned and was followed by a successor who presided over the opening ordered by Soviet military authorities. In 1946-7 the faculty consisted of 58% professors, 33% dozents, and 9% instructors; in the next five years the relationship had changed to 24%, 16%, and 60%, a change signifying not only that many professors had fled or been removed, but also that new teaching personnel included many communists and others who had not completed their academic preparation. In the student body, at the same time, the SED utilized the members of the Workers' and Peasants' Faculty to dilute the bourgeois-democratic majority that had prevailed in student elections. By arresting the non-communist leadership and abolishing the student groups of the other parties, the SED finally gained a majority by 1948.

In terms of growth in the same period, the student body increased from 2,411 students in 1946-7 to 6,572 in 1951; the faculty from 64 professors, 11 dozents, and 51 instructors in 1946 to 109 professors, 15 dozents, and 179 instructors in 1950. As in Greifswald, new construction centered on the natural sciences. 32.5 million DM were invested in veterinary, dental, and eye clinics and the institute of hygiene alone. The overall university budget showed the following rate of increase as the institution grew to serve 14,000 students and include 171 institutes and clinics and ten agricultural experiment stations:[30]

1951 - 46.8
1953 - 87.6
1956 - 104.9 (in millions of marks)
1958 - 105.2
1959 - 110.

If these examples serve to illustrate the kinds of development occurring in the period of Soviet occupation, there remains only the identification of the other institutions involved before the onset of the first great institutional expansion in the GDR. That expansion, marked by the founding of numerous new academic institutions, began the diversification of the system after the GDR had been established and SED leadership felt reasonably secure. Until the 1950's, however, the examples of Leipzig, Greifswald, and Freiberg are quite representative for the other universities and colleges. Those include Berlin, Halle, Rostock, and Jena as universities, the Technical College in Dresden (later to become a university), and such institutions as the College of Architecture and Civil Engineering in Weimar, the Technical College in Karl-Marx-Stadt (formerly Chemnitz), and the various colleges of arts and music inherited by the GDR. In all there were 17 academic institutions devoted to higher education in the SBZ in 1945-6.[31] By the 1950's they formed the basis for the first major reform under SED direction and also for the expansion of higher education in the new state.

Chapter I: Footnotes

1. "The Social Sciences," in *The Cultural Migration; the European Scholar in America* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1953), p. 11.
2. See especially Fritz K. Ringer: *The Decline of the German Mandarins; the German Academic Community, 1890-1933* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1969), the whole of which is devoted to this topic.
3. Gerhard Krüger, "Verpflichtung der Studentenschaft zum Sozialismus," *Der Deutsche Student*, August 1933, pp. 26-30, as quoted in George L. Mosse: *Nazi Culture* (New York: Grosset & Dunlap, 1968), pp. 305-307.
4. Walter Schultze, "The Nature of Academic Freedom," *Erste Reichstagung der Wissenschaftlichen Akademien des NSD-Dozentenbundes* (Munich and Berlin: J.F. Lehmanns Verlag, 1939), pp. 16-17, as quoted in Mosse, *ibid*, pp. 314-315.
5. Neumann, op. cit., p. 12.
6. Franz Neumann: *Behemoth; the Structure and Practice of National Socialism, 1933-1944* (New York: Harper Torchbooks, 1966), p. 399; relying on Charlotte Luetkens, "Enrolments at German Universities since 1933," *Sociological Review*, 1939, pp. 194-209. Richard Grunberger: *The 12-Year Reich* (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston,

1971), p. 322, cites a higher figure for 1932; he also notes that the working class share in higher educational enrollments rose from 3% under Weimar to 3½% in 1939.

7. David Schoenbaum: *Hitler's Social Revolution* (Garden City, New York: Doubleday Anchor, 1967), p. 262.

8. *Ibid*, pp. 262-263; cf. Neumann: *Behemoth*, p. 399, and note 6, above.

9. Christian von Ferber: *Die Entwicklung des Lehrkörpers der deutschen Universitäten und Hochschulen, 1864-1954* (Göttingen, 1956), p. 144.

10. Schoenbaum, op. cit., p. 253; for other treatments of Nazi higher educational policy, see G. F. Kneller: *The Educational Philosophy of National Socialism* (New Haven, 1941), E. Y. Hartshorne: *The German Universities and National Socialism* (Cambridge, Mass., 1937), and especially Grunberger, op. cit., chapter 20.

11. "Social Science," op. cit., pp. 16-17; regarding Nazi purges of faculties, Grunberger (op. cit., p. 308) notes that while only 1,200 professors were dismissed, their importance was greater than the number suggests; e.g., in that Jews constituted 12% of the professoriate and included a quarter of Germany's Nobel laureates.

12. But see Ringer, op. cit., for evidence that free inquiry was not necessarily so unlimited before

Hitler as many are wont to think.

13. The vast literature on totalitarianism stems in large part from the urge to join two hateful systems -- Nazism and Stalinism -- in a single theoretical construct because of their common repudiation of liberalism.

14. Evidence that the Nazis were anything but systematic in their treatment of the universities is found in Paul Kahle: *Bonn University in Pre-Nazi and Nazi Times* (London, 1945), the more impressive because the author was one of those dismissed by the Nazis.

15. Herbert Helbig: *Universität Leipzig* (Frankfurt: Verlag Wolfgang Weidlich, 1961), p. 107.

16. Erich Maschke: *Universität Jena* (Cologne: Böhlau Verlag, 1969), p. 122.

17. *Die Humboldt-Universität; Gestern - Heute - Morgen* (Berlin: VEB Deutscher Verlag der Wissenschaften, 1960), p. 122, using a formulation that manages to exempt the Russians from any responsibility for damage.

18. *How Does the GDR Solve the Problems of Higher Education?* (Dresden: Verlag Zeit im Bild, n.d.), p. 13.

19. J. P. Nettl: *The Eastern Zone and Soviet Policy in Germany, 1945-50* (London: Oxford University Press, 1951), p. 66.

20. Marianne and Egon Erwin Müller: *"...stürmt die Festung Wissenschaft* (Berlin: Colloquium Verlag, 1953),

pp. 36-37. This book remains the most complete account of the effects of Soviet occupation and early SED policy on East German higher education. The brief treatment possible in this text relies heavily on the Müllers' detailed study.

21. Siegfried Baske and Martha Engelbert: Zwei Jahrzehnte Bildungspolitik in der Sowjetzone Deutschlands (Heidelberg: Quelle & Meyer, 1966), Vol. I, p. xvii.

22. Cited in Nettl, op. cit., p. 120.

23. Müller and Müller, op. cit., pp. 9-122.

24. Willy Brandt and Richard Lowenthal: Ernst Reuter (Munich: Kindler Verlag, 1957), pp. 465-467, for Reuter's role.

25. Georg Kotowski, "Der Kampf um Berlins Universität," Veritas Iustitia Libertas (Berlin: Colloquium Verlag, 1953), pp. 7-31, an exemplary secondary account on which this section of the text relies heavily.

26. Cited in Paul S. Bodenman: Education in the Soviet Zone of Germany (Washington: US Office of Education, 1959), p. 96.

27. Germany Beyond the Wall (Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1969), pp. 162-163.

28. Walter Hoffmann: Bergakademie Freiberg (Frankfurt: Verlag Wolfgang Weidlich, 1959), pp. 110-112.

29. Friedrich Schubel: Universität Greifswald (Frankfurt: Verlag Wolfgang Weidlich, 1960), pp. 98-103.

30. Helbig, op. cit., pp. 108-120.

31. Handbuch der Deutschen Demokratischen Republik (Berlin: Staatsverlag der DDR, 1963), p. 680.

Chapter II

THE HIGHER EDUCATIONAL ESTABLISHMENT

As the opening chapter indicated, the overriding task of the Soviet occupation in the field of higher education was to get the historic institutions back in operation, in terms of both personnel tolerable to the SMAD and facilities more or less adequate to the functions required of them. With the founding of the GDR in 1949, the SED regime had to give increasing attention to the development of new facilities, either by adding on to older institutions or establishing entirely new ones, and to the gradual forging of higher educational faculties and administrations responsive to the policies of the party and government. These directions of development were severely hampered by shortage of resources for investment in higher education, by the need to compromise with academic personnel whose competence was proven and needed but whose loyalty to a socialist regime was often lukewarm at best, and by the continuing loss of scholars and students alike in the exodus to the west. Even in the years when GDR investment per student was less impressive than it is today, the defection of students represented a substantial drain on resources, especially when -- as happened at times -- the defections exceeded the number of newly trained graduates available for social and economic tasks.

While the erection of the Berlin Wall in 1961 did not halt the exodus altogether, it reduced it sufficiently that planning in the higher educational realm began to have a recognizable relation to reality. That is to say, the allocation of places to students and of funds to institutions began at that point to be meaningful in terms of the regime's attempt to shape the output of higher education and relate this shaping to the needs of the economy. Moreover, the shutting off of the major escape route produced a shift in morale that, though hardly measurable, seems to have borne fruit in terms of adjustments by academic personnel -- faculty and students -- to the likelihood of having to pursue their careers in the setting the SED was fashioning. No one can say how much "inner migration," outward tractability combined with intellectual alienation, occurred as a byproduct. It may well account for some of the continuing difficulty in mobilizing the population with the desired enthusiasm for social tasks. But at least the central planners can be reasonably sure that students completing a program of study -- and dropouts between 5 and 6% continue to plague the regime -- will be available for social and economic needs. Increasingly, too, they can count on personal ambition to serve official goals, even if they must go on lamenting the low degree of socialist ethic and behavior.

The academic establishment that had developed by the 1960's, the institutional base on which the reforms of the period 1965-1970 were constructed, was an elaborate network of functionally differentiated facilities closely linked to economic priorities. The historic institutional establishment -- the universities and some of the colleges -- had been swallowed up in the new system to such an extent that one would have looked in vain for an East German ivory tower. Only the official desire to capture some of the more illustrious features of the German past gave any reason to think that the historic institutions might keep elements of the German academic tradition alive. And that hope, undoubtedly nursed by numbers of traditional academics on whom the regime had given up ideologically but who were allowed to continue working in non-sensitive fields, became even fainter as the higher educational reform took shape. (See Chapter III, below.) For that systematic refashioning of higher education was thorough enough, at least in its principles and theory, to deserve the name "Gleichschaltung," but for the fact that the SED enlarged the higher educational establishment and increased its social importance, whereas for its predecessor regime the term had included a radical diminution in the scale and importance of the academy.

There is no simple way to divide the entities that make up East German higher education into clear and distinct categories. Depending on the criterion chosen as decisive, even the number of institutions varies from one list to another. And the listing of categories within the total number is also somewhat arbitrary, witness the change in 1961 from a Technical College to a Technical University in Dresden, evidently a matter of prestige unaccompanied by significant change in the institution itself. Thus, the list presented below is necessarily arbitrary too, for example in its exclusion of degree-granting institutions attached to the SED Central Committee (see Chapter III, below). It may therefore be helpful to comment in passing on the list, if only to dispel some of the hierarchical impression that it gives -- not that a hierarchy of prestige is lacking in the GDR, but only because it does not correspond perfectly to the categories used here. The universities form, by common consent, a single class of institution. All of them predate the Hitler period; all of them have several faculties; all of them grant doctoral degrees and habilitations. Berlin, Dresden, and Leipzig stand out by reason of their size; Greifswald is well below average size; and the others fall in the range around 5,000 enrollments. The Technical University in Dresden differs from the others, as its name implies, in its concentration on science and technology; Berlin is the only university with a faculty of education; and Greifswald's faculty of medicine concentrates on military medicine. The choice of Humboldt-University and Friedrich-Schiller-University (along with the Technical College "Otto von Guericke" in Magdeburg) as institutions on which the model of higher educational reform would be worked out is best viewed no doubt as an effort to achieve a sample of different types of institutions.

Among the technical colleges, Freiberg is sometimes singled out for consideration as a university, perhaps because of its size and relative variety of offerings, perhaps only because of its long tradition. Otherwise, the colleges are separated only because of their specialization. Two were founded in the eighteenth century; but in other respects they are similar except for their respective specialties, for example, transport and related problems at Dresden or architecture at Weimar. In the final analysis there is no firmer principle to distinguish colleges from universities than that which allows the United States to record a Dartmouth College and a University of Puget Sound.

Two institutions were established by the GDR to undergird its special concern with a drastically different approach to public affairs. The Academy of Political and Legal Studies in Potsdam is the older of the two and concentrates on the training of government officials. As its numbers are small it can be safely assumed that it serves a rather elitist selection of officials. The present Academy is an amalgamation (1952) of two institutions, the German Academy of Administration "Walter Ulbricht" and the German College of Justice. The present Academy is directly responsible to the Council of Ministers and is subdivided into institutes dealing with different aspects of law and state administration. Particularly well-known is the Institute for Foreign Policy and International Relations, directed by Dr. Herbert Kröger and charged with the training of personnel for diplomatic service. [1]

Incomparably larger is the College of Economics, formed in 1956 through the merger of the College of Planned Economy and the College of Finance. In 1958 it was joined by the

College of Foreign Trade. From 1950-1965 the College graduated nearly 6,300 students, half of them correspondence students; in 1967-68 some 800 students were enrolled, over half of them on an extramural basis. Like the Academy, the College of Economics awards the doctoral degree and the habilitation. [2]

The medical academies in Dresden, Erfurt, and Magdeburg, all formed in 1954, represent a self-evident effort to enlarge the country's capacity for medical training. They are equal in status to the six university medical faculties. [3]

Similarly, the colleges of engineering in Cottbus, Zittau, and Dresden, and the two specialized agricultural colleges, all established by the GDR and two of them very recently, represent an expansion of capacity in fields that have special importance to the East German economy.

The teacher training institutions, four of them with the status of colleges but all a part of higher education in the sense that they enroll post-secondary school students, are dealt with below under the heading of teacher training.

The other colleges, those concerned with the arts and the two special ones, have functions that are evident from their titles. Some of these institutions have a lengthy history, notably three of the four colleges of music, but taken together they complete the picture of East German higher education in all its variety. The total of 48 institutions deviates from totals shown in various sources not only because different things are counted but also by reason of mergers, abolition of some facilities, and recent establishment of others. For example, I have not included the small Roman Catholic seminary in Erfurt or the choir school in Leipzig, neither of which would be reckoned by East Germans as part of their higher educational system. Nor have I included party institutes and schools. Two of the colleges of economics have been merged with a third; and two pedagogical institutes have been combined into one college. And two agricultural institutes seem to have disappeared. As regards future expectations, it is at this writing unclear how much of the projected increase in higher educational enrollments will be absorbed by the present institutional network, mainly perhaps by shortening the duration of courses, and how much of it may result in the establishment of new institutions.

INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION*

Universities:

Humboldt-University, Berlin, founded 1810.

Academic Staff: 2,726

Number of students: 14,149

Rector: Prof. Heinz Sanke

Prorectors: Prof. John Lekschas (Social Sciences)
Prof. Lothar Kolditz (Natural Sciences)
Prof. Walter Bartel (Student Affairs)

Faculties:

- Philosophy (Prof. Karl-Heinz Wirzberger, Dean)
- Mathematics and Natural Sciences (Prof. Fritz Bernhard, Dean)
- Law (Prof. Erich Buchholz, Dean)
- Economics (Prof. Erwin Rohde, Dean)
- Education (Prof. Helmut König, Dean)
- Theology (Prof. Hans-Hinrich Jenssen, Dean)
- Medicine (Prof. Günther Liess, Dean)
- Veterinary Medicine (Prof. Rudolf von der Aa, Dean)
- Agriculture (Prof. Horst Fruck, Dean)

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*Based primarily on International Handbook of Universities, 1968 (Paris: International Association of Universities, 1968). The names of academic personnel at universities are taken from the more recent Deutscher Hochschulführer (Bonn: Verlag Dr. Josef Raabe, 1969). Figures on academic staff include part-time personnel in some cases; numbers of students include extramural enrollments; all figures are for 1967-8.

Technical University, Dresden, founded 1828

(university status conferred 1961)

Academic staff: 2,388

Number of students: 17,033

Rector: Prof. Lieselott Herforth

Prorectors: Prof. Lothar Striebing (Social Sciences)

Prof. Hans Frühauf (Correspondence and Evening Study)

Prof. Alfred Recknagel (Research)

Prof. Werner Gruner (Science Graduates)

Dr. Wolfgang Arnold (Student Affairs)

Faculties:

Mathematics and Natural Sciences (Prof. Gustav Schulze, Dean)

Civil Engineering (Prof. Ernst Ludwig, Dean)

Mechanical Engineering (Prof. Norbert Elsner, Dean)

Technology (Prof. Herbert Seidel, Dean)

Electrical Engineering (Prof. Hellmut Claussnitzer, Dean)

Engineering Economics (Prof. Hans-Joachim Hildebrand, Dean)

Forestry (Prof. Friedrich Fischer, Dean)

Vocational Education and Liberal Arts (Prof. Horst Wiesner, Dean)

Ernst-Moritz-Arndt-University, Greifswald, founded 1456

Academic staff: 1,443

Number of students: 2,593

Rector: Prof. Werner Scheler

Prorectors: Prof. Kurt Gabka (Science Graduates)

Prof. Friedrich Mach (Research in Natural Sciences and Medicine)

Prof. Heinz Quitzsch (Social Sciences)

Dr. Horst Bramer (Student Affairs)

Dr. Herbert-Peter Liphardt (Military Medicine)

Faculties:

Philosophy (Prof. Horst Gärtner, Dean)

Mathematics and Natural Sciences (Prof. Roland Pohloudek-Fabini, Dean)

Theology (Prof. William Nagel, Dean)

Medicine (Prof. Friedrich Müller, Dean)

Martin-Luther-University, Halle-Wittenberg, founded 1502 (Wittenberg), 1694 (Halle), 1817 (Halle-Wittenberg)

Academic staff: 1,445

Number of students: **6,174**

Rector: Prof. Friedrich Wolf

Prorectors: Prof. Heinz Tillmann (Social Sciences)
Prof. Eberhard Poppe (Student Affairs)
Prof. Karlheinz Renker (Research)
Prof. Hans Spiller (Science Graduates)

Faculties:

- Philosophy (Prof. Gerhard Lukas, Dean)
- Law (Prof. Willi Büchner-Uhder, Dean)
- Economics (Prof. Hans Rössler, Dean)
- Theology (Prof. Gerhard Wallis, Dean)
- Medicine (Prof. Hans-Albrecht Freye, Dean)
- Mathematics and Natural Sciences (Prof. Lothar Reppel, Dean)
- Agriculture (Prof. Klaus Dörfer, Dean)

Friedrich-Schiller-University, Jena, founded 1548

Academic staff: ca. 440

Number of students: **ca. 4,800**

Rector: Prof. Günther Drefahl

Prorectors: Prof. Gerhard Riege (Social Sciences)
Prof. Franz Bolck (Natural Sciences)
Dr. Heinz Kessler (Scientific and Cultural Relations)
Prof. Willi Schröder (Education)

Faculties:

- Philosophy (Prof. Dieter Fricke, Dean)
- Law (Prof. Martin Posch, Dean)
- Theology (Prof. Rudolf Meyer, Dean)
- Medicine (Prof. Rosemarie Albrecht, Dean)
- Mathematics and Natural Sciences (Prof. Klaus Matthes, Dean)
- Agriculture (Prof. Ernst Keppler, Dean)

Karl-Marx-University, Leipzig, founded 1409

Academic staff: 2,222

Number of students: 13,304

Rector: Prof. Georg Müller

Prorectors: Prof. Manfred Kossok (Social Sciences)
Prof. Günther Gebhardt (Natural Sciences)
Prof. Gerhard Dietrich (Science Graduates)
Dr. Alexander Porz (Student Affairs)

Faculties:

- Philosophy (Prof. Alfred Kosing, Dean)
- Philology (Prof. Eberhard Brüning, Dean)
- Journalism (Prof. Emil Dusiska, Dean)
- Mathematics and Natural Sciences (Prof. Robert Lauterbach, Dean)
- Agriculture (Prof. Otto Liebenberg, Dean)
- Economics (Prof. Albrecht Heinze, Dean)
- Law (Prof. Erhard Pätzold, Dean)
- Theology (Prof. Ernst-Heinz Amberg, Dean)
- Medicine (Prof. Harry Braun, Dean)
- Veterinary Medicine (Prof. Julius-Arthur Schulz, Dean)

University of Rostock, founded 1419

Academic staff: 1,262

Number of students: 4,892

Rector: Prof. Günter Heidorn

Prorectors: Prof. Adalbert Dessau (Social Sciences)

Prof. Wolfgang Engel (Planning of Scientific Development)

Prof. Siegfried Poppe (Scientific and Cultural Relations)

Dr. Günter Hellfeldt (Education)

Faculties:

Philosophy (Prof. Martin Polzin, Dean)

Mathematics and Natural Sciences (Prof. Gerhard Rembarz, Dean)

Engineering Economics (Prof. Herbert Luck, Dean)

Theology (Prof. Gert Haendler, Dean)

Medicine (Prof. Alfred Kaeding, Dean)

Agriculture (Prof. Gerhard Jannermann, Dean)

Technology (Prof. Franz-Heinrich Lange, Dean)

Technical Colleges (with university standing):

Mining Academy, Freiberg, founded 1765

Academic staff: 610

Number of students: 3,971

Rector: Prof. Karl-Friedrich Lüdemann

Faculties:

- Mathematics and Natural Sciences (Hugo Eckardt, Dean)
- Mining (Werner Arnold, Dean)
- Metallurgy (Alred Lange, Dean)
- Industrial Economics (Otto Gallenmüller, Dean)
- Workers and Peasants (Leo Gottschalk, Director)

College of Architecture and Civil Engineering, Weimar, founded 1860

Academic staff: 209

Number of students: 1,105

Rector: Prof. Horst Matzke

Faculties:

- Architecture (Hans Lahnert, Dean)
- Construction Engineering (Erhard Hampe, Dean)
- Construction Materials (Siegfried Röbert, Dean)

Technical College, Karl-Marx-Stadt, founded 1836

Academic staff: 516

Number of students: 4,062

Rector: Dr. H. Jäckel

Faculties:

- Mathematics and Natural Sciences (W. Forker, Dean)
- Mechanical Engineering (K. Lasch, Dean)
- Production Engineering (F. Klitzsch, Dean)
- Electrical Engineering (Eugen-Georg Woschni, Dean)

Technical College, Ilmenau, founded 1953

Academic staff: 331

Number of students: 2,402*

Rector: Prof. H. J. Mau

Faculties:

- Basic Sciences and Technology (Horst Sachs, Dean)
- High Tension Electrical Engineering (Walter Furkert, Dean)
- Low Tension Electrical Engineering (Günter Ulrich, Dean)
- Precision Engineering and Optics (Friedrich Hansen, Dean)
- Production Technology (Felix Weber, Dean)

*The figure given in the principal source is not plausible in terms of earlier enrollment figures given in the Statistisches Jahrbuch der DDR, so I have used here the figure given in The World of Learning (London: Europa Publications Ltd., 1966-67), p. 458.

Technical College "Otto von Guericke," Magdeburg, founded 1953

Academic Staff: ca. 450

Number of students: ca. 2,700

Rector: Prof. Friedrich Kurth

Faculties:

Mathematics, Natural Sciences, and Fundamental Technical Sciences (H. Müller, Dean)

Mechanical Construction (G. Freyer, Dean)

Mechanical Engineering (W. Rössner, Dean)

College of Transport "Friedrich List," Dresden, founded 1952

Academic staff: 398

Number of students: 3,041

Rector: Prof. H. G. Müller

Faculties:

Transport Technology (R. Kauczor, Dean)

Communications Engineering (H.-G. Wiehler, Dean)

Economics of Transport and Communications Economics (R. Göttner, Dean)

Technical College of Chemistry "Carl Schorlemmer," Leuna-Merseburg, founded 1954

Academic staff: 358

Number of students: 2,252

Rector: Prof. Hans-Joachim Bittrich

Faculties:

Chemistry (Hans-Heinz Emons, Dean)

Process Technology (Wilhelm Jugel, Dean)

Industrial Economics (Dieter Graichen, Dean)

College of Civil Engineering, Leipzig, founded 1953

Academic staff: ca. 70

Number of students: ca. 850

Rector: Prof. W. Schulze

Faculties:

- Building Construction
- Constructional Engineering
- Civil Engineering Technology

Colleges of Politics and Economics (with university standing):

College of Economics, Berlin-Karlshorst, founded 1950

Academic staff: 448

Number of students: 2,422

Rector: Prof. Alfred Lange

Faculties:

- Economics (Ekkehard Sachse, Dean)
- Socialist Business Administration (Hubertus Bernicke, (Dean)
- Finance (Eberhard Seifert, Dean)
- Foreign Trade (Helmut Blessing, Dean)

Academy of Political and Legal Studies "Walter Ulbricht,"

Potsdam-Babelsberg, founded 1948

Academic staff: ca. 50

Number of students: ca. 150

Rector: Rainer Arlt

Faculties:

- Law
- History
- Economics
- Political Science

Medical Academies (with university standing):

Medical Academy "Carl Gustav Carus," Dresden, founded 1954

Academic staff: 394

Number of students: 1,226

Rector: Prof. Heinz Simon

Medical Academy, Erfurt, founded 1954

Academic staff: 311

Number of students: 521

Rector: Prof. A. Sundermann

Medical Academy, Magdeburg, founded 1954

Academic staff: 328

Number of students: 764

Rector: Prof. Wolfgang Höfs

Other Technical Colleges

College of Agricultural Production Cooperatives, Meissen,
founded 1953
Academic staff:
Number of students:
Rector: Prof. Rudolf Hölterhoff

College of Agriculture, Bernburg, founded 1953 as institute,
acquired present status 1961
Academic staff: ca. 130
Number of students: ca. 1,000
Rector: Prof. Fritz Oberdorf

College of Civil Engineering*, Cottbus, founded 1953
Academic staff: 63
Number of students: 585
Rector: Prof. Lehmann

College of Engineering, Zittau, founded 1969
(newly established, data not available)

College of Engineering, Dresden, founded 1969
(newly established, data not available)

*Data from The World of Learning (London: Europa Publications Ltd., 1966-67), p. 458.

Colleges of Education

College of Education, Potsdam

College of Education, Dresden

College of Education, Erfurt/Mühlhausen

Pedagogical Institutes:

- Güstrow
- Leipzig
- Halle
- Karl-Marx-Stadt
- Köthen
- Magdeburg

German College of Physical Education, Leipzig

Colleges of Art and Music

College of Fine and Applied Arts, Berlin, founded 1947

College of Graphic Arts and Book Design, Leipzig, founded 1764

College of Fine Arts, Dresden, founded 1764

College of Theatre Arts, Leipzig, founded 1947

German College of Music, Berlin, founded 1950

College of Music, Leipzig, founded 1843

College of Music "Carl Maria von Weber," Dresden, founded 1856

College of Music "Franz Liszt," Weimar, founded 1872

German College of Cinematography, Potsdam-Babelsberg, founded 1954

Johannes R. Becher Institute of Literature, Leipzig, founded 1955

College of Industrial Design, Halle, founded 1915 as school, acquired present status 1950

Special Colleges*

Military Academy "Friedrich Engels," Dresden, founded 1959

College of German Trade Unions "Fritz Heckert," Bernau, founded 1952

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*From various sources. See pertinent sections of the text.

Some confusion about which institutions belong within higher education is occasioned by the arrangement that places both higher and technical education in the jurisdiction of the ministry of that name. It should be noted, first of all, that some of the institutions listed here are not in this jurisdiction: the agricultural institutions are responsible to the Agricultural Council of the Council of Ministers; the pedagogical colleges and institutes are responsible to the Ministry of Education; the colleges of art and music report to the Ministry of Culture; the College of Physical Education is under the jurisdiction of the State Committee for Physical Education and Sport; and the German Academy of Political and Legal Studies "Walter Ulbricht" reports, as noted above, directly to the Council of Ministers. The fragmentation of responsibility is reduced in practice by collaborative arrangements among the state organs involved.

Beyond that, however, the whole realm of technical schooling introduces a note of ambiguity. On the one hand, the technical schools resemble in most respects the vocational schools that definitely fall outside of higher education. On the other hand, technical school instructors can in exceptional cases receive the professorial title. Much depends, therefore, on the valuation one places on the ten-class secondary education, completion of which is ordinarily a precondition for admission to the technical schools. Since the _Abitur_, conferred after completion of the extended twelve-class secondary education, provides the customary route to higher education, and since the official view is that holders of that certificate should move on to the higher educational level, the technical school would seem to fall short of qualifying as higher education. This view is reinforced by the certificate awarded upon completion of technical education courses that is the formal equivalent of the *Abitur*, that is, it qualifies the holder for admission to higher education.

Yet it could still be argued that the technical schools occupy an intermediate position, not unlike that of the junior or community college in the United States, because they are so similar to the technical colleges enumerated above. It is a characteristic of these institutions -- technical colleges and schools alike -- that they are specialized in one industrial or occupational field. And the technical colleges, the newly established colleges of engineering, and the technical schools thus form more of a continuum than a set of clear gradations. The East German emphasis upon continuing education (see below) and alternate routes to higher education further blurs the situation, for technical schooling may serve in many cases as a part of post-secondary education leading ultimately to professional diplomas, state examinations, and even higher degrees that form a part of higher education.

Among the technical schools meriting special mention are the institutes for teacher training and the pedagogical schools for kindergarten teachers (see below;

but not to be confused with the pedagogical institutes listed above), the officer training schools operating under the Ministry of National Defense (also described below), and the College of the German People's Police, operating under the Interior Ministry.

In addition to these, there are numerous technical schools for engineering and agronomy, bringing the total (in 1967) to 188. They recorded nearly 125,000 enrollments in 1967 and over 140,000 in 1968, well over a third on scholarship and almost 60,000 engaged in full-time study. Incidentally, the transition from 1967 to 1968 showed a marked increase in female enrollments, presumably the result of an order from the Ministry in 1967 to the effect that more women should be enabled to enter technical training. (See Appendix C, Table VIII.)

Routes to Higher Education

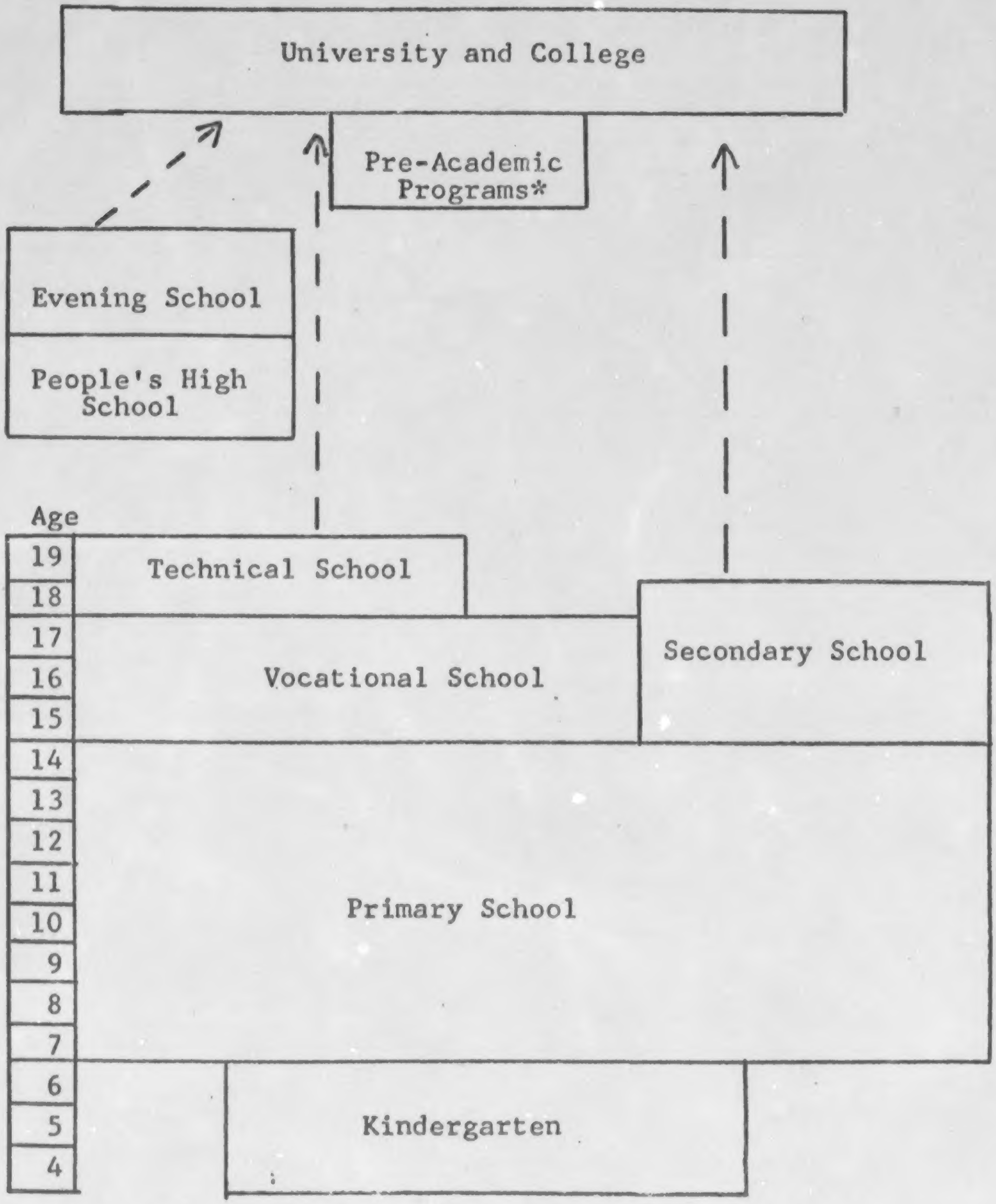
As a consequence of the effort to change the social composition of higher education and, latterly, to implicate the whole population more fully in the advancement of a technologically oriented economy, the paths leading to higher education have deliberately been multiplied. The principal and traditional path is via *Abitur*, admission to college or university following fairly automatically if the applicant has demonstrated a minimum of political awareness and has not given rise to the suspicion of unreliability. This is undoubtedly the route taken still by the largest numbers of students.

Earlier in the history of the GDR, however, a new thrust was needed to enlarge the proportion of student places occupied by children of workers and peasants. The Workers' and Peasants' Faculties were attached to the universities and, as the following section relates, served as a direct but alternate route. The device was largely abandoned when the immediate goal had been reached, but these faculties were a striking aspect of East German education for a number of years.

Although further change in social composition of student bodies is not urgent (see Appendix C, Table VII), the country still seeks to maximize both ideological indoctrination and scientific training for the largest possible segment of the economically active population. It follows that admission to higher education can be secured by a variety of paths. In contrast to prewar Germany, the GDR makes it easy for young people to raise their sights, even after they have opted for the shorter secondary school program and then perhaps vocational training or technical school. For the assorted programs of continuing education (see below) prevent any obstacles to college or university work from being permanent ones. Alongside the extended secondary school program resides, first of all, the *Abitur* segment of vocational education, which qualifies for technical school or higher education. Vocational education itself leads to technical training, and that in turn provides the possibility of entry into college or university. And the officially fostered branches of adult education -- People's High Schools, village academies, plant high schools, and educational programs in the countryside -- all open the way, at least in a few cases, to higher education. In addition, the emphasis on training is such in the GDR that virtually all elements of state service (government, economic, and military), of party activity, and of the mass organizations afford opportunities for advanced training, some of which leads directly to degrees or diplomas in the institutions associated with those organizations or to entry into college or university. It is impossible to ascertain how much use is made of these varied possibilities, but their existence is one of the most revealing features of the flexible scheme developed in the GDR to go with an inflexible and often doctrinaire educational content.

The following charts show three stages in the development of East German education and, therewith, the available routes by which citizens may attain higher education.

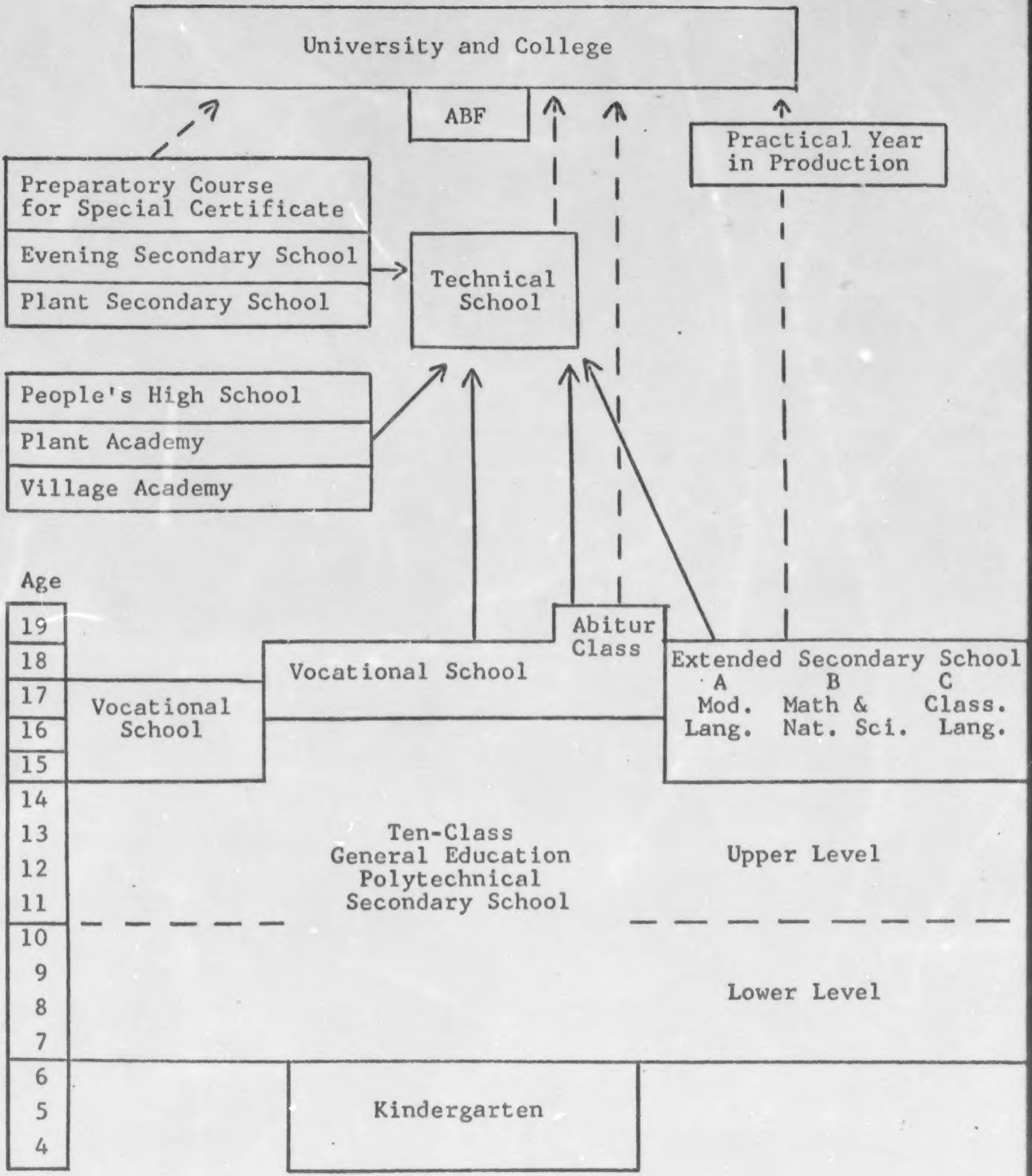
STRUCTURE OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM IN THE SBZ 1947


University and College
Pre-Academic Programs*
Evening School
People's High School
Age
19
18
17
16
15
14
13
12
11
10
9
8
7
6
5
4
Technical School
Vocational School
Secondary School
Primary School
Kindergarten

*Since 1949 Workers' and Peasants' Faculties (ABF)

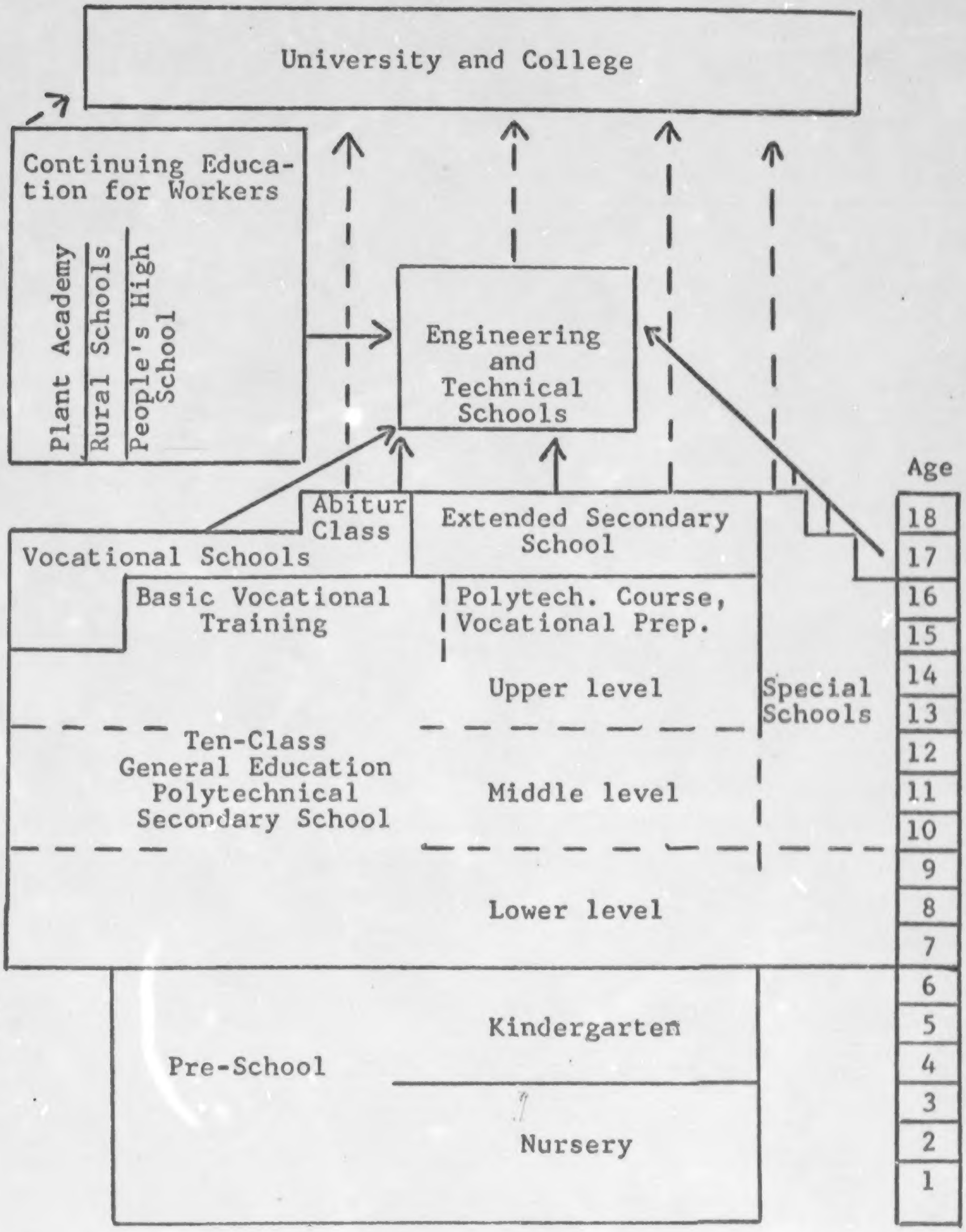
Source: Siegfried Baske and Martha Engelbert: Zwei Jahrzehnte Bildungspolitik in der Sowjetzone Deutschlands (Heidelberg: Quelle & Meyer, 1966), Vol. I, p. xxi

STRUCTURE OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM IN THE SBZ 1960


University and College
ABF
Practical Year in Production
Preparatory Course for Special Certificate
Evening Secondary School
Plant Secondary School
Technical School
People's High School
Plant Academy
Village Academy
Age
19
18
17
16
15
14
13
12
11
10
9
8
7
6
5
4
Abitur Class
Vocational School
Vocational School
Extended Secondary School
A
Mod. Lang.
B
Math & Nat. Sci.
C
Class. Lang.
Ten-Class General Education Polytechnical Secondary School
Upper Level
Lower Level
Kindergarten

Source: Baske and Engelbert, p. xxxiii.

STRUCTURE OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM IN THE SBZ ACCORDING TO THE LAW ON THE INTEGRATED SOCIALIST EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM FEBRUARY 25, 1965


University and College
Continuing Education for Workers
Plant Academy
Rural Schools
People's High School
Engineering and Technical Schools
Abitur Class
Extended Secondary School
Vocational Schools
Basic Vocational Training
Polytech. Course, Vocational Prep.
Upper level
Special Schools
Ten-Class General Education Polytechnical Secondary School
Middle level
Lower level
Kindergarten
Pre-School
Nursery
Age
18
17
16
15
14
13
12
11
10
9
8
7
6
5
4
3
2
1

Source: Baske and Engelbert, p. xxxv

Workers' and Peasants' Faculties

During the period of their existence, from 1949 through 1963, the Workers' and Peasants' Faculties (*Arbeiter- und Bauernfakultäten* = ABF) formed a principal means for widening the accessibility of higher education to elements of the population largely excluded from the traditional German university pattern. Establishment of the ABF demonstrated the seriousness of East German officials' determination to open the way for such citizens to reach the university. It was also characteristic of the flexibility of educational policy that the ABF were placed at the universities themselves, partially no doubt as a demonstrative act, and that they were disbanded when the educational system had caught up with social policy and terminated the need for such provisional measures.

The ABF were not themselves a part of higher education. Their task was to prepare individuals for higher educational pursuits and the *Abitur*, equivalent of the completion of secondary school, was accordingly the terminal certificate after the three year course had been successfully completed. Policies and procedures were set in May 1949 by the German Administration for Education in an order which replaced "pre-academic divisions" (*Vorstudienabteilungen*) with the ABF, charging the latter with "preparing qualified applicants from worker and peasant circles for academic study." [4] Such applicants were usually persons who had completed the eight years of basic school, were between 18 and 35 years of age, and could pass the entrance examination.

As teaching units, the ABF were to have their own distinct faculties, drawn to be sure from the regular university teaching corps, responsible for a unified three-year course in either natural or social sciences. The teaching program was to be identical for the entire SBZ with a terminal examination that automatically admitted successful students to the pertinent university faculty. Students were to be freed of all fees and awarded scholarships in accordance with social status, need, and contribution to society. Students could be admitted with advanced standing on the basis of the entrance examination and, once in residence, could attend some of the regular university lectures in addition to the prescribed ABF curriculum.[5]

In 1951, when the first ABF class was graduating into regular academic study, there were 11 ABF. Ten years later the number of ABF reached its peak with 16. At that point all the universities had such units attached (and Halle had two); in addition, ABF were functioning at the Pedagogical College in Potsdam, the College of Architecture in Weimar, the College of Fine Arts in Dresden, the College of Agricultural Cooperatives in Meissen, the College of Physical Education in Leipzig, the Mining Academy in Freiberg, the College of Mechanical Engineering in Karl-Marx-Stadt, and the German College of Music in Berlin. By 1963, however, the number of ABF had been cut back sharply, only the units at Halle and Freiberg continuing to channel students into higher education.

In terms of numbers of people involved, faculty as well as students, the peak came much earlier.[6] The four years in which enrollments exceeded 10,000 were clustered between 1952 and 1955, 1953 being the year of highest enrollments when the number approached 13,000. After that the total of students fell gradually through 1961, when the ABF began to disband, and by 1963 had dropped to 1,431. The preponderance of enrollments in all years fell to the children of workers and peasants, with approximately a fifth attributable to the social group known as the "technical intelligentsia."

The number of full-time ABF instructors fluctuated between 600 and 1,000 during the decade 1951-1961 when these units enjoyed their greatest prominence. In 1954, at a time when enrollments had just passed their peak, there were 995 full-time teachers at the 14 ABF functioning that year.

Graduations reached their highest point in 1953 with more than 4,000. After that the average held around 3,000 per year until the ABF began to disappear. But from 1951 to 1963, a total of 33,729 graduates of the ABF made the transition to higher education, a very significant figure for the size of the country and its student population and a substantial contribution to the official effort to alter the social composition both of higher educational student bodies and of the population segment qualified to occupy leading positions. It is more difficult to assess the academic quality characterizing the ABF. It would appear that about two-thirds of those entering upon the course of study completed it successfully. But there is no way to be sure how many of those proceeded with equal success through the university-level academic program to graduation. It has been reported, at any rate, that after the weaker students had fallen by the wayside, usually at the end of the first year at the ABF, the remaining students proved to have a high aptitude for academic work. Their more advanced age contributed something no doubt, but ABF instructors who fled East Germany sometimes indicated that their students who went on to university work showed an exceptional motivation and gratitude for the educational opportunity.[7]

Teacher Training

Although the preparation of teachers is not, especially after the official introduction in 1951 of a differentiated teacher training scheme, a monopoly of higher education, both in numbers of people involved and in the understandable ideological concentration on this field, pedagogy forms a vital part of East German higher education. Moreover, it is the academic field that has, more than any other, been refashioned from the ground up by the SED regime.

The reopening of schools in 1945 was accompanied by a systematic screening of the existing teaching corps, in the course of which 75% were eliminated as having been associated with the Hitler regime. Another 3-5% were subsequently released, leaving only 20% of the teaching profession available. [8] The gap was filled provisionally by assigned untrained personnel to the schools and by establishing short courses, gradually lengthened as the crisis dwindled, to orient new teachers to their tasks. But by mid-1946, the Soviet authorities had begun to erect a more permanent institutional pattern for teacher preparation.

One commentator has divided the postwar years of teacher training into several stages characterized by different forms of development. [9] The period from 1945 to 1949 remained largely, in Wendt's view, a time of provisional measures. The slogan of this stage was democratization, and no effort was made to destroy the German pedagogical tradition except in so far as it was associated with fascism in the eyes of the SMAD. Pedagogical examinations were established by Soviet order, and Order No. 205 of 12 June 1946 provided for the establishment of faculties of education for a more regularized style of teacher training. The transition to the next stage was marked by the Fourth Pedagogical Congress in Leipzig which proclaimed Soviet pedagogy as the model for East Germany, replacing the "bourgeois-democratic" methods as reactionary. The following period, 1949-1951, was then marked by new and more stringent ideological measures, the introduction of Soviet textbooks in translation, and a diversification of forms of teacher training according to school level. In addition, the sharp rise in the exodus of teachers to the west required a continuation of some of the shortcuts of the earlier stage.[10] The period from 1952 to 1954 saw the effectuation of plans to acquaint teachers more systematically with Soviet pedagogy, the introduction of correspondence study for teacher preparation, and a firmer implantation of differentiated training for teachers at various levels. As the party established a more direct control over teacher training, the groundwork was laid in 1955 and 1956 for the part that pedagogical education would play as the GDR went into the phase known as the comprehensive building of socialism.

The institutional development that matched up with these stages began with the founding of seven pedagogical faculties at universities: 1945 in Jena, 1946 in Berlin, Halle, Rostock, Greifswald, and Dresden (Technical College), and 1947 in Leipzig. The intention was to train all teachers in these faculties, but conditions worked against this plan. Until the early 1950's, most teachers graduated from a variety of short courses outside the universities. Enrollments were never high in the faculties of education. When the Soviet model of differentiation was instituted, it called for a different scheme of teacher training programs. The university faculties of education began to disappear in 1950 with the closing of the one in Dresden's Technical College. The one in Rostock was closed in 1952 and the one in Jena in 1954; Halle and Greifswald closed theirs in 1955, and Leipzig closed its in 1956. The remaining education faculty, the one at

Humboldt-University in Berlin, continued as a specialized facility for the preparation of teacher trainers.[11]

The institutional pattern that began to emerge in 1953 has survived with few changes of significance to the present. One segment of the scheme is definitely outside the higher educational realm, the Institutes for Teacher Training, of which 22 were already in operation in 1954 with sixteen more in process of construction. These Institutes accept students who have completed the ten-year secondary school and give them a three-year course of study; in addition, the Institute in Leipzig served for a time as a kind of Workers' and Peasants' Faculty in the field of education by accepting older persons from 18 to 35 and giving them a special two-year course. Graduates of such programs are qualified then to teach at the primary level, grades 1-4.[12] In 1955 these courses of study were integrated with training for kindergarten teachers and educational personnel in children's homes.

Teachers trained for the intermediate level, grades 5-8, and for the upper level, grades 9-12, figure in the higher educational picture since they must have completed secondary school (or the Workers' and Peasants' Faculty or evening school equivalents) to qualify for admission. The Pedagogical Institutes for the intermediate level and the College of Education, which (along with regular university studies) prepares teachers for the upper level) are thus functionally specialized elements of higher education. The College of Education in Potsdam was founded in 1948;

and the first six Pedagogical Institutes were established in 1953 -- in Güstrow, Dresden, Leipzig, Mühlhausen, Erfurt, and Halle. Another was operating in Karl-Marx-Stadt by 1958, and two more were added in Köthen and Magdeburg in 1963. Since then the Institute in Dresden has been elevated to college status; and the Institutes in Erfurt and Mühlhausen have been combined into one College. Thus, there are again six Institutes, but two more colleges have joined the one in Potsdam. The German College of Physical Education in Leipzig, founded in 1950, trains teachers in that field for both the intermediate and upper levels; and teachers of music are trained at the College of Music in Dresden.[13]

As regards fields of specialization, the Institutes have tended to divide the subjects for which they are responsible, and the same is true in lesser degree of the university curricula available to future teachers. Similarly, the several institutions that train vocational school teachers are specialized by subject. Two special programs, involving four year courses and diplomas, exist at Dresden's Technical University and at Berlin's Humboldt-University. Institutes for the training of technical school teachers are similarly specialized.[14]

The remaining institutional cog in the East German teacher training machinery is the German Central Pedagogical Institute, founded in 1949 and responsible to the Ministry of Education. Its founding statute gave it "the function of promoting the advancement of pedagogical science in Germany, of influencing the development of educational and training practices, and of developing a pedagogical cadre for teaching and research."[15] It has assumed major responsibilities in transmitting Soviet models to East German schools, in undergirding the ideological training of teachers, and in undertaking educational research. It has special divisions to deal with, among other things, West German pedagogy and Sorbian schools. Two other, formerly separate entities have been placed under joint direction with the Institute in the course of implementing the integrated system of education and training, namely the German Central Institute for Instructional Materials and the German Institute for Vocational Education.[16]

In 1963 the GDR established another sort of institution, the Central Institute for Continuing Education of Teachers, Educators, and School Officials, vested with the function of assisting educational personnel to renew their professional knowledge and, above all, to spearhead the effort to effectuate the new emphases of the integrated school system among teachers. Scientific planning and direction of the educational process figure largely in the continuing education of teachers.[17] In part, this new Institute may reflect the modest accomplishments of the so-called Pedagogical Cabinets existing in each district of the GDR with the assignment of improving the qualifications of teachers.

In the statistics of higher educational enrollments and graduations, education has formed the largest single group for some years. By 1962 it had surpassed technical sciences in enrollments, and has led in graduations even longer than that. One of the fastest growing fields in higher education, it has accounted for from one-fourth to one-third of graduations over the past decade while averaging over 25% of enrollments. (See Appendix C, Tables V and VI.)

Adult Education [18]

A regime that is officially committed to radical social and economic transformation does not ordinarily have the patience to allow its educational instrumentalities to have their effect only on successive generations of youth while the older generations continue in their accustomed ways. In this sense it is hardly surprising that adult education should receive uncommon emphasis in the GDR. This formulation suggests an ideological accent that is seldom absent from educational efforts in East Germany, but the urge to persuade falls far short of exhausting the subject of adult education there. The SMAD issued an order on 23 January 1946 confirming the statute of the People's High School (Volkshochschule) with its statement of purpose: "People's High Schools will be established in the larger cities. Their task, among adults and youth, is to disseminate general scholarly and political knowledge, to contribute to the elevation of the general cultural and educational level, and to train the populace in the spirit of democracy, anti-fascism, and antimilitarism." [19] The political emphasis is there and, as such, represents a departure from the well-established German tradition of adult education. But the other emphases were to acquire equal importance, especially after 1949 when the SED regime became a more or less sovereign government with the enormous task of mobilizing East German society for economic as well as ideological purposes.

The elaborate network of institutions and organizations since developed to serve adult education shows conclusively that the investment is by no means solely in popular indoctrination. Indeed, the standard West German study of the subject aknowledges the great headstart that the GDR has on its western neighbor in this field. [20] And, if political considerations had an overly large part in the early development of adult education in the GDR, the manner in which the subject appears in some of the latest statements makes it abundantly clear that adult education is viewed now as a fundamental part of the whole educational system, one which is not there merely to rescue the older generation from bourgeois bias but also, and mainly, to strengthen the economic resources and reservoir of professional skills in the country. (See Appendix E, II.) Emphasis has plainly shifted to a problem that faces all modern societies: the need to keep professional and technical personnel abreast of new knowledge. It seems quite natural, therefore, that in integrating adult educational devices and techniques into the overall educational system, East Germany has built a close relationship between the universities and continuing education. Such developments as the Workers' and Peasants' Faculties and the stressing of evening and correspondence study (discussed in separate sections) could as well be considered aspects of adult education, for they are not really more intimate parts of university life than several other distinctive East German innovations in adult education.

The various aims that have emerged from this development may be enumerated as follows:

1. To provide additional channels for conveying official ideological and political teachings to the populace;
2. To fashion additional routes whereby previously unqualified persons and segments of the population can make their way to and through higher education;
3. To improve the overall level of technical skill and professional qualifications for the sake of economic efficiency and productivity;
4. To help bridge the gap between generations by offering programs to both adults and youth (though one critic believes that the failure to fashion different approaches has diminished the effect of this tack [21]);

5. To afford opportunities, chiefly for workers and farmers and building on the tradition of education for workers in the history of German social democracy, for improvement of the overall cultural level, with particular emphasis on a popular brand of science and technology; and
6. To engage academic personnel in the popularization of scholarly knowledge to the benefit of all elements of society and not just for their students and colleagues.

Although the People's High School was the first element of adult education to be revived, more or less in the form it had assumed in Weimar times, it soon acquired additional functions. From being almost entirely an instrument of general education, it began even before the end of the Soviet occupation to assume a role in improving vocational qualifications. This trend was halted, at least in part, by the early fifties when companion institutions developed in the industrial plants themselves, thereby inaugurating a functional differentiation that allowed the People's High Schools to stress general education while the educational programs in the plants emphasized vocational and technical qualification. After this division of labor was made rather explicit in an order of 5 March 1953, whereby plant courses were removed from the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Education and given responsibility for vocational qualification while the People's High Schools were reserved for "general and special needs," the latter had to seek for an adequate reason for existence. They found it not so much in the increasingly popular "mass cultural efforts" that preoccupied the FDJ, the FDGB, and certain new organizations as in the realm of qualification for schooling. In this fashion they concentrated increasingly on providing a distinct route for people wishing to move to the next higher educational step. Functionally, this role placed them more and more in the same realm as that occupied by Workers' and Peasants' Faculties and by evening or correspondence study at colleges and universities. The numbers of people directed as far as higher education may not in fact have been very high, but the task was to provide means for everyone to achieve a higher educational level.

A third type of institution, alongside the People's High Schools and the vocational qualification programs in the plants, is the village academy (Dorfakademie). This instrument made its appearance in 1958 and was supposed to total 3,000 separate academies by 1960. However many actually took shape, the function assigned them was much like that of the plant courses except that, existing in the countryside, their target was the modernization of agriculture. As such they had little to do with higher education directly.[22]

The tie between higher education and adult education is better illustrated by the Institute for Adult Education at the Karl-Marx-University in Leipzig. Founded in 1948 as part of the philosophical faculty, the Institute has three divisions: one for systematic and historical adult pedagogy, one for the methodology of adult education, and a third for the pedagogy of adult qualification. Some 900 students are active in the Institute, though only 25 are full-time students aiming at a career in adult education. Their academic program lasts four years with a fifth year of practical experience.

Other students elect adult education as a secondary field along with political economy, philosophy, history, or scientific socialism. But the largest number of students are enrolled for brief periods of direct training, at the beginning and end of their programs; in the interim they continue in their jobs and receive instruction by correspondence. Some 150 candidates take the final exam each year for a diploma in adult education, Dresden assuming responsibility for those specializing in technical fields as Leipzig does for other subjects.[23]

In addition, the GDR has several other instrumentalities participating in some form of adult education -- though they do not as a rule provide routes into higher education. Perhaps the least important of these is the German Cultural Federation (*Deutscher Kulturbund*, formerly *Kulturbund zur demokratischen Erneuerung Deutschlands*), supposedly an organization of the intellectuals formed to foster socialist culture. Its history is checkered from the time it was formed in 1945 on SMAD initiative and undertook various propaganda chores, mostly in relation to foreign intellectual circles. The Federation was repeatedly criticized for revisionist tendencies and, at its congress in 1958, changed its name and much of its leadership, taking on a new program of cultural effort in behalf of socialist realism. Although it has some affiliated groups at institutions of higher education, its clubs are mainly devoted to discussions, concerts, poetry readings, and the like in the intellectual community. It claimed about 185,000 members in 1966, approximately 35% of whom were intellectuals. [24]

The Chamber of Technology (Kammer der Technik) also has a tangential role to play in higher education, as the organization charged to disseminate official policy and doctrine among scientists and technicians. Established by the FDGB in 1946, the Chamber has tried to forge the new "technical intelligentsia" and to propagandize in behalf of the several economic plans. With some 150,000 members, it is organized mainly in plants, though it sponsors some courses in continuing education and technical qualification, mainly for engineering personnel. It also publishes 26 technical journals and helps to disseminate foreign (mainly Soviet) technical literature. [25]

The German Cultural Federation joined with FDJ and FDGB to initiate the Society for the Dissemination of Scientific Knowledge in 1954, only to have that Society, renamed Urania in 1966, take over a goodly share of the popular educational activity of the Federation, as well as some of the functions of the People's High Schools.

By assuming the more general cultural efforts, mainly in the natural and social sciences, Urania permitted other institutions to focus more exclusively on the qualification of technical personnel, though this is not to say that Urania is not interested in this phase of adult education as well. With over 25,000 members, lecture facilities in all major cities, and the task of serving the village academies with lectures and other programs, Urania arranged no fewer than one million educational programs in a single five-year period. In 1965 it recorded 3.7 million people in attendance at its programs. It also publishes several journals as part of its assignment to disseminate knowledge distinguished by both "high scholarly calibre" and "party loyalty" (Parteilichkeit).[26]

A rather important feature of adult education, though not one that is organized to serve definite institutional goals, is the East German library system. Among English-language observers, Jean Edward Smith seems to be the only one to have noted the widespread availability of reading matter in public libraries, even in the villages. Restrictive policies on what should be accessible mean that the collections may be sanitized, but it is nonetheless impressive, as the UNESCO Statistical Yearbook for 1964 reports, that GDR collections are about the same size as those in the Federal Republic, despite the disparity in population, and that the GDR has almost twice as many borrowers of books.[27] Official plans for the period from 1964 to 1970 call for expenditures in the vicinity of 63 million marks for books and journals, accompanied by improvements in cataloging. One of the prerequisites for improvement noted in the plan was the establishment of a higher educational training program for library personnel.[28]

Should it seem that much of the foregoing has little to do with higher education, it may be well to repeat that the GDR has deliberately developed a functionally diversified educational system, however unified it may be in the substance of instruction, in which the parts reinforce each other in the service of economic development and the raising of educational levels necessary for that development. The many facets of adult education thus fit together with the more formal elements of the academic community to maximize the coverage and reach of education and training. However alien some of the objectives may be to western observers, the result has been to give the GDR a good deal of machinery to cope with such matters as continuing education and retraining that vex all modern societies. And few governments have been as thorough in their efforts to reach all segments of the population, not just with ideological messages but also with useful educational materials.

Foreign Students

Foreign students may enter the higher educational system of East Germany at many levels but all start with an introductory stay at the University of Leipzig's Herder Institute.[29] At the Institute the student is prepared for his academic work by an intensive study of the German language tailored to his particular field and whatever courses he may require to be able to take a normal course load in his chosen area of specialization.

The various possible courses of study include: (1) the engineering and technical studies offered by the various technical schools, normally three years in duration; (2) study at a university, technical college or medical college, which courses of study generally last at least five years and terminate with a diploma; (3) a doctoral course, pursued after the diploma has been earned; and (4) various specialized post-doctoral courses.

There are several hurdles -- academic, political, and administrative -- which must be crossed in order to study in the GDR. Academically, a prospective student who wishes to study at the university or specialized college level must have the equivalent of the certificate which East German students earn after completing the twelve-year general and polytechnical educational curriculum. There are many variations on the route to this certificate, the important thing being that the prospective foreign student demonstrate a competence equal to that of his East German counterparts in fundamental subjects related to his proposed field of study. Some deficiencies can be corrected during the preliminary period at the Herder Institute if the student is accepted.

For those who wish to study at a technical school, the general requirement is an educational competence equivalent to that of those who have successfully completed the ten-year East German general and polytechnical education and three years work experience in the proposed field.

No knowledge of German is required to qualify for a student position. Language instruction, tailored to special needs, is required as part of the overall foreign student program.

Each year interested governments are offered a specified number of student positions in various institutions of higher learning in East Germany. Prospective students must seek a position through their own governments or through a local branch of an international organization having connections with an organization of the same nature in the GDR.

Once a student is accepted, a visa must be obtained through the East German embassy, consul general or commercial mission in countries having formal diplomatic relations with East Germany. In those countries having no official relations with East Germany, the student may obtain a visa through the international organization having links with East Germany and authorized to serve in this capacity. The visa indicates Leipzig as the student's destination.

All foreign students spend their first few months or year at the Herder Institute. For all but doctoral candidates, who usually spend four to six months, the stay is generally one year. After the admissions exams determine the type and duration of language and compensatory classes, the student is also given a practical work assignment, to be carried out under the auspices of the educational institution to which he is assigned. This can be dispensed with if the student has written proof of such experience in his home country. Prior knowledge of German also gives the student more time but does not exempt him from the Herder Institute classes, since one goal of this preparation period is to give all students sufficient time to grasp the East German way of doing things and gain some experience in common with their future classmates.

An exam is given at the end of the preparatory period, which, if successfully passed, admits the student into a university, college, or technical school.

Because the Herder curricula are difficult and require dedication and discipline, the East German government provides domestic and foreign students with sufficient income so that they need not do outside work to make ends meet. These costs are borne by the government and are fixed by accords with participating governments and sponsoring organizations. The amounts are generally higher than the scholarships granted East German students. Free medical treatment for those who fall ill is available to foreign students as it is to any East German citizen.

The foreign student also has access to all the scientific installations in the universities, colleges, and technical schools, libraries, laboratories, and other institutions, necessary to his course of study and free of charge. Students are lodged in boarding schools or student hostels, usually in close proximity to East German colleagues assigned to assist them.

After completion of the Herder preparatory stage, the student is ready to enter into the real institutions of higher learning. Among the universities, Leipzig, Berlin, and Dresden have tended to attract large numbers of foreign students.

Numbers of foreign students have ranged upwards from 2,500 in recent years, reportedly reaching 4,000 in 1966. It is of course no coincidence that the majority of students come from parts of the world in which the GDR can pursue an active policy of trade, technical assistance, and cultural relations. Thus, Africa and parts of Asia have figured largely as sources of foreign students. Some of these have organized associations, such as the Union des Etudiants Africains en DDR, which tend to propagate policies favorable to the host regime.[30]

Religious Education

Although it is frequently asserted that the government and ruling party of the GDR exercise an oppressive policy toward religion and the churches, offical policy has in fact been rather mild if it is viewed in the context of Eastern European habits since 1945. There have, to be sure, been periods when the government has taken more severe measures, such as arresting pastors and other spokesmen for religious viewpoints, but these periods have generally been followed by spells of more accommodating official posture. Of the two points on which the SED and the government have been consistently antireligious in an active manner, one is typical of regimes that seek to further the secular ideology associated with Marxism-Leninism. That is of course the campaign against religious instruction in public schools, accompanied by efforts to invent secular rituals to replace the combination of appeal and habit incorporated in such religious observances as youth confirmation. The constitutional guarantee that citizens are free to choose their own systems of belief has not been inviolate, but official action has been confined largely to counter-propaganda rather than outright persecution for religious belief.

The other consistent policy is peculiar to East Germany in that ecclesiastical boundaries do not conform to political ones and the regime has resisted the church governance of Berlin-Brandenburg quartered in West Berlin, more because of sensitivity toward West Germany than because of antireligious sentiments as such. Thus, a theologian who held joint appointments during the Soviet occupation in the theological faculty of Humboldt-University and in the church college in West Berlin was deprived of this possibility as the split deepened after 1949. By attempting to divide the East German Christian community from its West German (and West Berlin) counterpart, the SED regime has left the Evangelical and (much smaller) Roman Catholic communities of East Germany almost entirely dependent on their own limited resources. That has made it possible to encourage judiciously the advancement of the so-called "progressive" pastors and religous spokesmen who are relatively congenial to official policy. This subtle form of antireligious policy has been particularly noticeable in the theological faculties of the universities, where the government can influence appointments and advancement.

Although the GDR has no separate church college (Kirchliche Hochschule), the six theological faculties at Berlin, Greifswald, Halle-Wittenberg, Jena, Leipzig, and Rostock have remained intact. Only once, in August 1952, did it appear that this traditional pattern might be disturbed. Prime Minister Grotewohl wrote to Bishop Dibelius at that time, suggesting that the six theological faculties be disbanded and replaced by a single theological academy sponsored by the church and independent of state control. The justification offered was that it seemed anomalous to train Protestant pastors in faculties of state universities supported by the government. Instead, Grotewohl offered to channel the financial support going to those six faculties into a new academy and to assist in finding suitable quarters. After canvassing church leaders and the theological faculties themselves, Dibelius rejected the idea on grounds that theology should remain within the scholarly context of the university. The notion seems never to have been advanced again.[31]

As matters stand, then, the six small faculties continue to grant the doctorate in theology, providing the training for Protestant clergy needed in the East German congregations. Enrollments, which stood at close to 1,000 in 1956, dwindled to under 600 by 1968; and graduates have averaged just over 100 per year over the last decade. (A small seminary in Erfurt appears to be the only facility in the GDR for training Roman Catholic clergy.)

It is difficult to ascertain how this academic training compares with that of West Germany or pre-Nazi Germany. But, whereas the East German Evangelical bishops have maintained a high degree of unanimity in behalf of Christian teachings, it is noticeable that public pronouncements favoring Christian accommodation to prevailing policies have come increasingly from the members of the theological faculties. Professors Haufe, Mueller, and Fuchs of Leipzig, Kehnscherper of Greifswald, and Hanfried Mueller of Berlin are sometimes mentioned in this connection.[32] If this represents an erosion of Christian discipline, it is understandably of concern to those in East Germany or elsewhere who fear that theological education will be weakened just when the church needs its fullest strength to survive. It seems rather less important, in view of consistent official encouragement of atheism in all phases of education, to emphasize, as Friedrich-Georg Hermann does, the provocative nature of the establishment in 1963 of a chair for scientific atheism in the philosophical faculty at Jena.[33]

Military Education

The growing role of the military in East German society has had two kinds of influence on the overall picture of higher education in the GDR. The National People's Army and the other branches of the armed forces have required educational institutions of their own either to train young people for careers as military officers or to provide a sort of continuing education for officers who have already attained higher military rank. In terms of numbers, this narrower form of military education does not bulk large in East German higher education. The other kind of influence, the injection of military emphases into educational patterns at all levels, is subtler but much more pervasive. It might be described not as military education, strictly speaking, but as the militarization of all education.

Until January 1956 the military forces of the GDR were concealed under the rubric of law enforcement, even though some police units lived in barracks and were equipped with tanks and military weaponry. And as early as 1952, the Society for Sport and Technology (*Gesellschaft für Sport und Technik* = GST) was given explicit pre-military training assignments. When the Law on the Creation of a National People's Army and a Ministry of National Defense was passed in 1956, the military segments of the People's Police included nearly 120,000 personnel, of which 10,000 belonged to the marine forces and 9,000 to the air forces. At the same time the GDR military forces were incorporated into the Joint High Command of the Warsaw Pact. [34] In mid-1962 the GDR instituted a general military service requirement of 18 months and by 1966 the National People's Army had passed the 200,000 mark. Land forces including border troops totaled 155,000, air force units accounted for 35,000, and the marine forces had some 20,000 personnel. These forces were backed by paramilitary units of militia type amounting to 400,000 members, special police forces with quasi-military functions of 28,000 men, and a GST membership of 450,000. [35]

Given the rate of growth that this represents, it is understandable that formal officer training had to be regularized. Whereas at the outset the officer corps had been made up of a somewhat fortuitous mixture of old communists with military experience, enthusiastic younger communists, and veterans of the pre-1945 Wehrmacht, in the 1960's it became possible to systematize the recruitment of officers and to require of them either a higher educational level to begin with or the completion of special courses equivalent to graduation from secondary school.

At the end of 1963 the various officers' schools were organized into one Officer School of Land Forces "Ernst

Thälmann" in Löbau with branches in Zittau and three other schools for separate branches of the armed forces: the Officer School for Border Troops "Rosa Luxemburg" in Plauen; the Officer School for Air Forces "Franz Mehring" in the vicinity of Dresden; and the Officer School for the People's Navy "Karl Liebknecht" in Stralsund. The courses of study were of four years' duration, except for the three-year course for border troops, and grades determined whether an officer was graduated as lieutenant or junior lieutenant (*Unterleutnant*).[36] As established in the regulation of January 1962 on the status of personnel released from military service, a certificate of completion of the aforementioned military school courses of study is the equivalent of certificates from other technical schools, enabling holders to enter non-military professional fields such as engineering or secondary school teaching.[37] Although the numbers involved have yet to figure in any large way in civilian society in East Germany, the military schools are thus formally a part of the higher educational system.

So, in a different way, is the Military Academy "Friedrich Engels." Founded in 1959, apparently on the model of the Soviet Frunze Academy in Moscow, the Academy's teaching program is designed for the higher officers of all branches of the armed forces. The only military educational program that ranks higher is the two or three years of training provided future members of the GDR general staff in the Soviet Union.[38] Completion of the course of study at the Military Academy "Friedrich Engels" equals the diplomas offered graduates of East German colleges and universities, thus making the Academy also a component part of the country's higher educational system.[39] Commandants of the Academy have been major-generals Heinrich Dollwetzel, Fritz Johne, Heinrich Heitsch, and Hans-Joachim Wiesner.

The other element of higher education that has formal connections with the military is the Military Medical Section of the Medical Faculty at Greifswald.

The introduction into higher education of military considerations may be conveniently dated from July 1958 when the State Secretariat for Higher and Technical Education declared that military training formed an integral component of academic preparation.[40] As East Germany's military establishment has grown since then, the stress on military matters has grown correspondingly, usually fitted into any given program of study via the study of social science and Marxism-Leninism. Apparently unbothered by the seeming disparity between professions of peaceful intent (coupled with strident attacks on West German militarism) and an increasing emphasis on military duties and patriotism as an aspect of socialist consciousness, the regime has steadily increased the volume of sloganeering and political indoctrination that has a pointedly military connotation.

From 1952 on, the FDJ and the GST were employed as the principal agents for introducing an ever increasing emphasis on premilitary training into all levels of education. The FDJ has been chiefly responsible for indoctrination of student groups toward an acceptance of military service, especially after the intensification of militarization that set in during 1961. The GST, on the other hand, has provided premilitary and even paramilitary training in its program of activities, few of which deal with sport in the usual sense but emphasize rather those skills that have obvious application in military service. Such skills as shooting, parachuting, gliding, navigation, and motorcycling have formed parts of the GST program that became mandatory in 1958 for student participation during times free of lectures. The GST, responsible to the Ministry of Interior, has also organized activity for female students leading to participation in air defense and the Red Cross.

With the mass organizations, FDJ and GST, handling premilitary training for students, and with FDJ indoctrination underscored by efforts of the SED organizations at the universities and colleges, the conspicuous intention was to attract numbers of students to proceed from higher education into military service. The military skills and the subject matter of courses in social science and Marxism-Leninism provided an alternate means of preparing military officers, the final stages of training to be handled by military units themselves for those students who wished to become reserve officers and perform periodic service on active duty. But university students displayed little enthusiasm for military service; for example, before universal conscription was instituted, a very intensive recruiting campaign in the last half of 1961 produced only one recruit for every fifteen students.

Measures introduced during the 1960's have proved somewhat more effective than the missionary efforts of the mass organizations among students. The central authorities have tied both admission criteria and rules for assignment of stipends to the need for military recruits (see Chapters II and III). This institutionalization of obligatory military service has provided a decisive reward and penalty scheme to reinforce the FDJ and GST programs.

Chapter II: Footnotes

1. *A bis Z* (Bonn: Deutscher Bundes-Verlag, 1969), pp. 144-145.
2. *Ibid*, p. 274.
3. Mention should also be made of the Academy of Continuing Medical Education in Berlin, which provides postgraduate training for physicians. It is staffed almost entirely by professors from the medical faculties of other institutions. *Ibid*, pp. 19-20.
4. Siegfried Baske and Martha Engelberg: *Zwei Jahrzehnte Bildungspolitik in der Sowjetzone Deutschlands* (Heidelberg: Quelle & Meyer, 1966), Vol. I, pp. 114-115, reprinting the order of the German Administration for Education establishing the ABF from *Forum*, 3/7, 1949, p. 27.
5. *Ibid*. Also pp. 240-244, containing further directives on the ABF from the State Secretariat for Higher Education dated 4 December 1953.
6. Following statistics from *ibid*, Vol. II, p. 464.
7. Ernst Richert: "*Sozialistische Universität*" (Berlin: Colloquium Verlag, 1967), pp. 61-65.
8. Emil Wendt: *Die Entwicklung der Lehrerbildung in der sowjetischen Besatzungszone seit 1945* (Bonn: Bundesministerium für gesamtdeutsche Fragen, 1957), p. 6. It remains an open question what proportion of the released teachers were actually tainted

with Nazism and how many may have been falsely identified or perhaps suspected of anti-Soviet sentiment.

9. *Ibid*, pp. 50-55.
10. *Ibid*, pp. 13-14. From September 1950 to September 1951, 10,000 teachers left, and in the same span only 7,000 new teachers were graduated.
11. Baske and Engelbert, op. cit., Vol. 1, pp. 45-46n.
12. Paul Bodenman: *Education in the Soviet Zone of Germany* (Washington: US Office of Education, 1959), pp. 99-100.
13. Wendt, op. cit., p. 44.
14. Bodenmann, op. cit., pp. 104-105. Further details in *A bis Z*, op. cit., pp. 370-371.
15. Quoted in Bodenman, op. cit., p. 107.
16. *A bis Z*, op. cit., p. 155.
17. *Ibid*, pp. 370-371.
18. Joachim H. Knoll and Horst Siebert: *Erwachsenenbildung, Erwachsenenqualifizierung* (Heidelberg: Quelle & Meyer, 1968), forms the basis for much of this section: but see also Erich Emmerling: *50 Jahre Volkshochschule in Deutschland* (Berlin, 1958) and Heinz Gutsche: *Die Erwachsenenbildung in der Sowjetischen Besatzungszone* (Bonn, 1958).
19. Quoted in Knoll and Siebert, p. 13.
20. *Ibid*, pp. 33, 36.
21. *Ibid*, p. 27.
22. *A bis Z*, op. cit., p. 160.

23. Knoll and Siebert, op. cit., pp. 34-36.

24. Gerd Friedrich: Der Kulturbund (Cologne: Rote Weissbücher, 1952), is a standard reference but dated; cf. A bis Z, op. cit., p. 153.

25. A bis Z, p. 321.

26. Knoll and Siebert, op. cit., p. 30; A bis Z, p. 662.

27. Jean Edward Smith: Germany Beyond the Wall (Boston: Little, Brown and Co., 1969), p. 176.

28. Martin Thilo: Das Bibliothekswesen in der Sowjetischen Besatzungszone Deutschlands (Bonn: Deutscher Bundes-Verlag, 1965), pp. 152-156.

29. Most of the following is based upon Etudiant en Republique Democratique Allemande (Dresden: Zeit im Bild, n.d.), issued for the information of prospective foreign students.

30. A bis Z, op. cit., p. 57.

31. Richard W. Solberg: God and Caesar in East Germany (New York: Macmillan, 1961), pp. 135-136.

32. Ibid, pp. 277-278; see also Friedrich-Georg Hermann: Der Kampf gegen Religion und Kirche in der Sowjetischen Besatzungszone Deutschlands (Stuttgart: Quell-Verlag, 1966), p. 111.

33. Hermann, pp. 114-115.

34. Thomas M. Forster: NVA; Die Armee der Sowjetzone (Cologne: Markus-Verlag, 1966/67), p. 35.

36. Ibid, p. 189; an interesting use of the names of the three leading members of the Spartakus group of World War I, one to which they might conceivably

object had they the opportunity.

37. *Ibid*, p. 190.

38. Certificates granted for such training in the USSR are equated with GDR academic credentials, *ibid*, p. 197.

39. *Ibid*, pp. 197-198.

40. For the following, see Rudolf Kabel: *Die Militarisierung der Sowjetischen Besatzungszone Deutschlands* (Bonn: Deutscher Bundes-Verlag, 1966), especially pp. 59-61.

Chapter III

STATE, PARTY, AND HIGHER EDUCATION

In considering the political life of the GDR and its bearing on higher education, it is necessary to recognize at the outset that state and party are deliberately intertwined in a relationship that may or may not duplicate personnel but one that always leaves initiative with the leading party. It would be inaccurate to discount the importance of the state organs and apparatus, or even to regard these solely as the executive agencies for party direction, for modern bureaucracies have demonstrated sufficiently that they always have a weight of their own. But it is important to stress the leading role of the SED, not merely because it has subordinated all other parties to the status of rubber stamps or because it exercises direction of the affiliated mass organizations. The entire system is built in such a way as to assure that policy will originate in the inner circles of the SED and then be conveyed to the legislature and governmental agencies. The fact that the party seems outwardly less prominent than the organs of government are in higher educational matters is misleading, for virtually all initiatives can be traced to party councils. The constitution becomes, in consequence, one form of the SED program for East Germany. In this chapter, the formal elements of the system are presented first, followed by a resumption of the policy questions begun in the opening chapter.

The Constitutional Basis

Since governments generally fail to maintain a perfect correspondence between constitutional documents and official practice or reality, the deviation of actuality from constitutional norms in socialist societies should probably be viewed as difference of degree and not of kind. But constitutions in the countries of the socialist commonwealth do exhibit a characteristic, something that might be called a programmatic intent, that goes well beyond a mere failure to keep practice perfectly adjusted to constitutional injunctions. This programmatic feature, often explicitly presented in the pertinent indigenous literature (see, e.g., the Politburo report translated at the end of Appendix E), means that constitutions incorporate not just the consensual view of a society as to its way of conducting public business but also the leadership's view of where the society is going. This has particular point in the East German case, owing to its special transition from occupied status to that of socialist partner and its focus on maximizing the latter status as a country on its way to socialism. At any rate, the East German constitutional provisions bearing on education, whether from the 1949 or the 1968 documents, have to be understood both as statements of objective and as landmarks in the GDR's progress toward full acceptance in the socialist commonwealth.

During the Soviet occupation, the SED produced a constitutional draft as early as 1946, a document that could be utilized, albeit in a form representing compromise with prevailing reality, in drafting the constitution of 1949. That document emerged from a committee of the People's Council (*Volksrat*) late in 1948, bearing a marked resemblance to the Weimar constitution because it was designed, at a time when Soviet policy in Germany had not become reconciled to a separate East German state, for the whole of Germany -- or at least to influence the charter that might be fashioned for a united Germany. In March 1949, the People's Council approved the constitution. A Third People's Congress was then convened on the basis of an election of a "unity list" of candidates apportioned among the parties and mass organizations. The Congress gave its approval to the constitution and named another People's Council. That body convened in fall 1949, renamed itself the provisional People's Chamber (*Volkskammer*) thus assuming the legislative function stipulated in the constitution, and promulgated on 7 October the constitution of the German Democratic Republic.[1]

Section IV of the constitution, articles 34-40, are devoted to education:

IV. Education

Article 34

> Art, science, and their teaching, are free.
>
> The state participates in their cultivation

and grants them protection, especially against their abuse for purposes which are contrary to the provisions or the spirit of the Constitution.

Article 35

Every citizen has an equal right to education and to a free choice of his vocation.

Education of youth and adult education of the citizenry in intellectual or technical disciplines are provided by public institutions in all fields of national and social life.

Article 36

The Laender are responsible for the establishment of a public school system and for the practical operation of school instruction. To this effect the Republic shall issue uniform legislative provisions of a basic character. The Republic may itself establish public educational institutions.

The Republic shall issue uniform provisions for the training of teachers. Such training shall take place in the universities or institutions of equal status.

Article 37

The school educates the youth in the spirit of the Constitution to be independently thinking and responsibly acting individuals who will be able and willing to take their place in the life of the community at large.

As conveyor of culture, the school has the task of educating the youth to be truly humane in the spirit of peaceful and amicable co-operation in the life of nations and genuine democracy.

The parents shall participate in the school education of their children by councils of parents.

Article 38

Attendance at school is compulsory for all until completion of the eighteenth year of life. After completion of a primary school course compulsory for all children, training is pursued in a vocational or technical school, in high school or in other public educational institutions. All juveniles under eighteen years of age must attend a vocational or training school unless they attend another (public) school. Private schools as substitutes for public schools (state or municipal) are inadmissible.

Vocational and technical schools afford general and vocational training.

High schools (Oberschule) pave the way for admission to a university. Such admission, however, does not require high school attendance; attendance at other public educational institutions, which shall be extended or created for that purpose, may take its place.

All citizens must be given the opportunity to prepare their admission to a university in special preparatory schools.

Members of all classes of the population shall be given an opportunity to acquire knowledge in colleges of the people without interruption of their occupational activities.

Article 39

Every child must be given the opportunity fully to develop its physical, mental and moral capacities. The school career of youth must on no account depend on the social or economic position of the parents. Indeed, children who are at a disadvantage because of social conditions are to be given special care. Attendance at vocational school, high school and university must be open to gifted pupils from all classes of the population.

Tuition is free. Text-books and instructional material used in compulsory schools are furnished without cost: in case of need, attendance at vocational school, high school and university will be promoted through scholarships and other measures.

Article 40

Religious instruction is a concern of the religious associations. The exercise of this right is guaranteed.[2]

Although these provisions could hardly be taken as a shock to traditional educational attitudes, they did indicate a direction of development. They emphasized the constructive role of the state in providing educational services and adumbrated something of the institutional diversification that would come to characterize the East German higher educational system. Above all, however, they underscored the accessibility of higher education to all elements of the population. At the same time, as Siegfried Mampel shows in his detailed study of the 1949 constitution,[3] several of the provisions were implemented less than promptly and others were progressively eroded as the GDR moved further toward a socialist set of goals. One example is afforded by Article 39, in which instance higher educational policy produced special advantages for children of certain social groups and a corresponding restriction on the assurances of equality of treatment for others.

By far the most important constitutional loopholes are found in Articles 34 and 37, whether one views them as openings for the exertion of ideological control by central authorities or as opportunities for the introduction of more explicitly socialist or Marxist-Leninist educational content. Coupled with the destruction of traditional institutional autonomy for educational institutions and their faculties (which was, however, never so pristine as some would wish to assume), the ruling party and state were able to move higher education some distance from the picture conveyed by the constitution. Toward the end of the life of that charter, higher education was so far out of harmony with formal constitutional principles that a major revision seemed in order in the educational sphere alone, not to mention the other sections of the old document.

Within three years of the promulgation of the constitution, two significant changes had been introduced: the proclamation that the GDR had entered the stage of building socialism and the replacement of the five provinces by 14 districts. Nothing quite so striking happened in the realm of higher education itself, except that the new stage of development entailed modifications of the educational function to serve a more explicit socialist program. By mid-1967 Ulbricht had spoken in the People's Chamber of the need for a new constitution. Late in 1967 a commission of the legislature was designated to draft such a document; two months later it was presented to the People's Chamber and then disseminated for popular discussion. In April 1968 the new constitution was endorsed in a plebiscite, and it went into effect on the 9th of that month.

It contains only one article bearing entirely on the state's role in education and research:

> Article 17
>
> (1) Science and research as well as the application of their findings are essential foundations of socialist society, and are fostered by the state in every respect.
>
> (2) The German Democratic Republic assures all citizens a high standard of education corresponding

to the constantly increasing social requirements through the integrated socialist educational system. It enables citizens to shape socialist society and to participate creatively in the development of socialist democracy.

(3) The German Democratic Republic promotes science and education with the aim of protecting and enriching society and the life of the citizens, of mastering the scientific-technical revolution as well as guaranteeing the constant progress of socialist society.

(4) Any misuse of science directed against peace, international understanding, against the life and the dignity of man, is prohibited.

In addition, Article 25 stipulates that "Every citizen of the German Democratic Republic has an equal right to education. Educational facilities are open to all. The integrated socialist educational system guarantees every citizen a continuous socialist education, training, and higher training." And Article 26 amplifies further:

(1) The state ensures the possibility of transference to the next higher stage of education up to the highest educational institutions, the universities and colleges: this is done in accordance with the performance principle, social requirements, and taking into consideration the social structure of the population.

(2) There are no tuition fees. Training allowances and free study materials are granted according to social aspects.

(3) Full-time students at the universities, colleges and technical schools are exempted from tuition fees.

Grants and allowances are given according to social aspects and performance.[4]

The differences that the newer constitution displays in relation to higher education, as compared with the 1949 constitution, are not so pronounced in substance as they are in tone. In this respect, the educational provisions merely reflect the overall differences characteristic of the new constitution. Whereas the earlier document represented a compromise at a time when the direction of development was still unclear, the new one is a tightly-knit product of a leadership with quite definite aims and purposes. In this sense, the whole constitution bears on higher education to an extent that the earlier one did not, for higher education is carefully fitted to the officially endorsed social patterns already existing or earnestly sought after. And, just as the actualities of the East German higher educational situation are understandable only in the larger framework of directed social and economic change, the constitutional provisions regulating higher education are an integral part of the whole constitutional blueprint for a socialist society. The terminology, ideological postulates, and rhetoric of the quoted passages run through all of the official literature, and not just the literature bearing on education, of the period at least since 1965 in East Germany. Monotonously repetitious as the phrases may be, they should yet remind us that the SED leadership has been proceeding in the most systematic fashion to delineate the kind of society the GDR is to become. It is characteristic both that higher education should enjoy such prominence in the official program for the country and that it should be dealt with in essentially the same terms as are employed for the economy, social organization, and officially sanctioned beliefs.

State and Party Apparatus

The list below indicates the several organs of government that play a role in higher education. The Ministry for Higher and Technical Education obviously plays the central role in central administration of the system and its policies. The other ministries have lesser but still significant responsibilities: Science and Technology for the research dimension and especially for relating industrial research needs to scientific capacities in the universities and colleges; Education for the various aspects of teacher training; and Culture for the institutions specializing in the arts. The Research Council is chiefly advisory to the Council of Ministers.

It is noteworthy that, while the ministers themselves belong to the Council of Ministers by virtue of their portfolios, few of the personnel shown here figure in the inner circles of the SED. The most notable overlap occurs in the case of Kurt Hager, the party's leading spokesman in educational matters, but his role is confined to the legislative branch as chairman of the committee that deals with party and/or governmental initiatives of a legislative sort. His position in the SED makes him the most important personage in the listing of state apparatus, so far as higher education is concerned, even though his position may appear marginal. By the same token, it may be significant when a lesser member of a ministry staff belongs to the SED Central Committee and the minister himself does not.

The Ministry of Higher and Technical Education was formed in 1967 as successor to the State Secretariat that had overseen higher education since 1951. (Earlier, higher education had been handled by a sub-section of the Central Administration for Education.) Prof. Ernst Giessmann, who had been State Secretary from 1962-1967 after serving as rector of the Technical College in Magdeburg, became the first minister. But, like his predecessor in the State Secretariat, Wilhelm Girnus, he elected to return to academic work and was succeeded in September 1970 by Prof. Böhme. After Giessmann had played the leading governmental role in designing the latest reform of higher education, his successor will presumably inherit the task of making it work.

By direction of the Council of Ministers (in an order dated 3 June 1965 but presumably still valid for the Ministry), the State Secretariat was directed to work closely with the other relevant ministries and the State Planning Commission to co-ordinate all higher educational planning, to supervise the administration and funding of academic institutions, and to oversee curricular development and personnel matters. In particular, the State Secretariat was enjoined to collaborate with the State Secretariat for Research and Technology (now Ministry for Science and Technology) in determining research emphases for colleges and universities. The right to approve the statutes of educational institutions includes those institutions reporting to other organs of the state, but in such cases follows the other organ's suggestion. Similarly, the right to approve appointments of academic and administrative personnel includes the right to be consulted on those institutions responsible to other ministries. Advisory functions are performed in the State Secretariat primarily by a Council on Higher and Technical Education but also by an assortment of scholarly committees for particular subjects.[5]

The Ministry for Science and Technology functions in a similar way but with less direct impact on higher education. As scientific activity is organized increasingly on a national basis in large-scale institutes that gather personnel from all segments of the economy, it may be expected that this Ministry will have a growing effect on higher education, not only on what research occupies academic personnel but on the long-range planning of training programs for each successive generation of students.

The Research Council is successor to the Central Office for Research and Technology of the State Planning Commission and has, since 1957, served as the highest advisory body for research policy in natural science and technology. Since 1966 it has also served as an advisory body for questions involving atomic energy. The Council is attached to the Council of Ministers and chaired by Prof. Max Steenbeck, a physicist from the University of Jena.

ELEMENTS OF THE STATE APPARATUS BEARING ON HIGHER EDUCATION*

Ministry for Higher and Technical Education

Minister: Prof. Hans-Joachim Böhme (SED)[a]

State Secretary and First Deputy: Günter Bernhardt (SED)

Deputies:
Franz Dahlem (SED)[c]
Heinz Herder (SED)
Prof. Edith Oeser (SED)
Prof. Georg Schirmer (SED)
Prof. Dieter Spaar (SED)
Hermann Tschersich (SED)
Prof. Günter Wutzler (SED)

Ministry for Science and Technology

Minister: Günter Prey (SED)[a,c]

State Secretary and First Deputy: Dr. Klaus Stubenrauch (SED)

Deputies:
Dr. Heinz Fritzsche (SED)
Dr. Fritz Hilbert (SED)
Dr. Wolfgang Leupold (SED)

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* Personnel listed as of December 1970; extracted from Der Staatsapparat der Deutschen Demokratischen Republik (Bonn: Bundesanstalt für gesamtdeutsche Aufgaben, 1971).

[a] Member of Council of Ministers

[b] SED Politburo member

[c] SED Central Committee member

Ministry of Education

Minister:	Margot Honecker (SED)[a,c]
State Secretary and First Deputy:	Werner Lorenz (SED)
Deputies:	Siegfried Beier (SED)
	Karl Dietzel (SED)
	Prof. Hans Kaiser (SED)
	Dr. Ernst Machacek (SED)
	Rudolf Parr (SED)

Ministry of Culture

Minister:	Klaus Gysi (SED)[a]
State Secretary and First Deputy:	Dieter Heinze (SED)
Deputies:	Kurt Bork (SED)
	Bruno Haid (SED)
	Günter Klein (SED)
	Dr. Wilfried Maass (SED)
	Dr. Werner Rackwitz (SED)
	Siegfried Wagner (SED)

Research Council of the GDR

Chairman:	Prof. Max Steenbeck (unaffiliated)
First Deputy:	Dr. Herbert Weiz (SED)[c]

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[a] Member of Council of Ministers

[b] SED Politburo member

[c] SED Central Committee member

Education Committee, the People's Chamber

Chairman: Prof. Kurt Hager (SED)[b,c]
First Deputy: Gerhard Lange (CDU)
Second Deputy: Dr. Günther Wutzler (DKB/SED)
Secretary: Dr. Herbert Müller (DBD)

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[a] Member of Council of Ministers

[b] SED Politburo member

[c] SED Central Committee member

The SED is organized in a manner more or less parallel to that of the government. As noted above, Kurt Hager, who has been a philosophy professor at Humboldt-University, is the outstanding personage in party circles for educational and scientific matters. He heads a party hierarchy of similar officials at the district level and is almost invariably the SED spokesman in policy matters bearing on his division of the Central Committee. He has belonged to the Central Committee since 1954, has been a member of the People's Chamber since 1958 and of the Politburo since 1963. He is also a member of the presidium of the Research Council and head of the Politburo's ideological commission. 6

The Central Committee sections have responsibility for overseeing the operation of their corresponding governmental agencies and for undergirding the policy deliberations of the SED in their respective areas.

Institutes and the party school are dealt with in a separate section below, and the Scientific Union appears in the section on the FDGB. Urania, while it is responsive to the SED, is not so directly connected with the party as are, for example, the FDGB and FDJ. The work of Urania is dealt with in Chapter II under the heading of adult education.

ELEMENTS OF THE SED BEARING ON HIGHER EDUCATION*

The Secretariat of the Central Committee

Secretary for Science, Education, and Culture:	Prof. Kurt Hager[a,b]

Central Committee Sections

Science

Leader:	Johannes Hörnig[b]
Deputies:	Siegfried Förster
	Arwed Kempke

Research and Scientific Organization

Leader:	Hermann Pöschel[b]
Deputy:	Karl-Heinz Kuntsche

Culture

Leader:	Dr. Arno Hochmuth
Deputies:	Heinz Kimmel
	Arno Röder
	Gerd Rossow

Education

Leader:	Dr. Lothar Oppermann
Deputy:	Dr. Sonja Müller

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*Personnel listed as of December 1970; extracted from Der Parteiapparat der Deutschen Demokratischen Republik (Bonn: Bundesanstalt fur gesamtdeutsche Aufgaben, 1971).

[a] SED Politburo member [b] SED Central Committee member

[c] SED Central Committee candidate

Institutes Attached to the Central Committee

Institute for Social Science

Director: Prof. Otto Reinhold[b]
Deputies: Prof. Heinz Hümmler
Dr. Werner Friedrich
Prof. Werner Kalweit

Institute for Marxism-Leninism

Director: Prof. Günter Heyden
Deputies: Prof. Ernst Diehl[b]
Prof. Heinrich Gemkow

Institute for Public Opinion Research

Director: Karl Maron[b]

Central Institute for Socialist Economic Direction

Director: Prof. Helmut Koziolek
Deputies: Prof. Gerd Friedrich
Prof. Paul Liehmann

Party School "Karl Marx" (attached to the Central Committee)

Director: Prof. Hanna Wolf[b]
Deputies: Prof. Manfred Herold
Prof. Werner Horn
Prof. Helmut Neef
Prof. Otto Raus
Rudolf Wiederänders

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[a] SED Politburo member   [b] SED Central Committee member

[c] SED Central Committee candidate

District Secretaries for Science, Education, and Culture

Berlin:	Dr. Roland Bauer[c]
Cottbus:	Werner Sanden
Dresden:	Oswin Forker
Erfurt:	Gerhard Schinkel
Frankfurt/Oder:	Heinz Plöger
Gera:	August Paczulla
Halle:	Edith Brandt[b]
Karl-Marx-Stadt:	Rolf Wendrock
Leipzig:	Prof. Peter Heldt
Magdeburg:	Dr. Helmut Winnig
Neubrandenburg:	Horst Dettmann
Potsdam:	Erwin Skeib
Rostock:	Helga Kuhnt
Schwerin:	unknown
Suhl:	Dr. Joachim Strey
Wismut Area:	Joachim Weber

FDGB Scientific Union

Chairman:	Prof. Gerhard Junghähnel (SED)

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[a] SED Politburo member

[b] SED Central Committee member

[c] SED Central Committee candidate .

"Urania" (Society for Dissemination of Scientific Knowledge)

Presidium

President:	Prof. Herbert Dallmann (SED)
First Vice-President:	Dr. Horst Mädicke (SED)
Vice Presidents:	Prof. Walter Berthold (SED)
	Dr. Horst Heynert (SED)
	Prof. Christian Weissmantel (SED)
	Dr. Renate Wahsner (SED)
Secretary:	Ernst Mutschka (SED)

Academic Institutions of the SED

The Central Committee of the SED maintains, directly under its supervision, four major institutes and a party school, all of which figure in the higher educational scheme of the GDR. The Karl Marx Party School, the Central Institute for Socialist Economic Direction, and the Institute for Social Science contribute directly to higher education in the sense that they grant degrees for regular programs of study; the Institute for Marxism-Leninism and the Institute for Public Opinion Research contribute less directly in that they engage the efforts of some academic personnel in their scholarly enterprises.

The Institute for Marxism-Leninism was founded in 1947 and began its work in 1949 in Berlin. It has been known successively as the Marx-Engels-Lenin Institute, the Marx-Engels-Lenin-Stalin Institute (from 1953 to 1956), and the Institute for Marxism-Leninism (IML). The research tasks of the IML involve hundreds of academic staff members, including several prominent East German scholars. The principal divisions of the Institute correspond to its research assignments: preparation of editions of Marx-Engels and Lenin (the Stalin edition was broken off in 1956); research on the history of the German and international working class movements, as well as local manifestations of working class organization; and sponsorship of scholarly meetings and conferences. Professors and dozents active in the IML are also in several cases members of university faculties.[7]

The Institute for Public Opinion Research, established in 1965 in Berlin, focuses chiefly on popular attitudes and feelings about policy matters and leading figures in party and government and on the participation and attitudes of personnel in the three key industrial branches, the chemical, electronics, and machine construction industries. The Institute collaborates in these undertakings with the Institute for Social Science and with the division of industrial sociology at Humboldt-University's Institute for Political Economy.[8]

Of the same vintage, 1965, is the Central Institute for Socialist Economic Direction, but its development has been characterized by the gradual addition of professorial positions in such fields as operations research, electronic data processing, prognosis and planning, and economic law. This Institute has the right to grant degrees and habilitations, though little is known about its relations with other academic institutions or its own programs of study. Its research functions correspond generally to the fields just mentioned, and in these connections the Institute maintains close working relations with other SED institutes, with appropriate university personnel, and with the relevant ministries, as well as with the State Planning Commission. A large part of its effort is devoted to short courses and seminars for industrial and governmental leaders and for promising younger personnel in the middle range of administration, all forms of continuing education aimed at increasing efficiency and productivity.[9]

The Institute for Social Science (*Institut für Gesellschaftswissenschaften* = IfG) has existed in Berlin since 1951 and has developed into a center of both instruction and research. It has had the right to grant degrees and habilitations since 1953, and the first dissertations were completed there in 1956. Until 1963 the IfG provided chiefly continuing education for party and governmental cadres, requiring of its registrants at least eight years of SED membership, experience in responsible party activity, and the completion of either the Karl Marx Party School course or regular higher education. It has since become an independent academic program with standard offerings for a four-year course of study. It includes among its faculty both full-time and part-time personnel totaling well over one hundred. Its activities include: instruction and research in philosophy, theory of literature and the arts, history, and political economy; continuing education for officials from local and state levels of government, various levels of the SED, and economic enterprises; sponsorship of meetings and conferences, often in cooperation with the Academy of Sciences or with higher educational institutions; and research ventures in the fields mentioned.[10]

The Party School "Karl Marx" was founded in 1946, moving from Liebenwalde to Berlin-Kleinmachnow in 1948 and to Berlin in 1955. Its faculty of about 80 professors, dozents, and assistants covers the following fields: Marxist-Leninist philosophy, general history, history of the German working class movement, history of the Soviet Union, history of the international working class movement, political economy of capitalism, political economy of socialism, economic policy of GDR industry, economic policy of GDR agriculture, state administration and socialist law, party life and activity, literature and cultural policy, German, and Russian. The functions of the institution include training and continuing education of party officials, sponsorship of meetings and conferences and research. One and two-year courses were introduced in 1950, and three-year courses in 1954-55. The latter ends with a state examination and a diploma for successful candidates. The School has had the right to award degrees since 1953, the first being awarded in 1955, and the habilitation in philosophy and economics. [11]

The FDGB

If one measures according to number of deputies in the People's Chamber, the Free German Trade Union Federation (Freie Deutsche Gewerkschaftsbund = FDGB) is second only to the SED in importance among organized forces in the GDR. [12] Its 68-man delegation is at least indicative of the importance assigned to it and of the variety of tasks that it undertakes in East German society. In keeping with Marxist-Leninist tradition and with East

German emphasis specifically on raising the cultural level of the working population, the FDGB plays a very active role in the regime's cultural and educational policies. The bulk of its efforts in this realm is devoted, however, quite understandably to lower levels of education, to what we might call general education and popular culture; and to the technical specialization of workers, to raising their level of qualification. [13]

But in addition there are at least three ways -- one general and two rather specific -- in which the FDGB figures in higher education. The specific items are the FDGB's own school pyramid, culminating in the College of the German Trade Unions "Fritz Heckert" in Bernau, a degree-granting institution; and its Scientific Union, one of fifteen constituent industrial unions, which plays a notable part in the governance of all institutions of higher education. The more general contribution consists in FDGB efforts, dating from its formation and the earliest attempts to alter the social composition of the student population, to encourage a higher level of matriculation by its members and by workers in general at universities, colleges, and technical schools. It was, for example, particularly active in selecting and recommending workers for admission to the Workers' and Peasants' Faculties, from whence they could proceed to regular academic work. It has continued this practice since the ABF were closed down and takes some pride in the fact that over 50% of the student population derives from the working class.

The FDGB has taken seriously its own need for better educated and trained officials in its own organizational structure, and a goodly part of its own school network is given over to the preparation of FDGB members for administrative assignments, either full-time posts in the organization or active participation in FDGB affairs alongside regular employment in industry. The apex of the rather far-flung FDGB school apparatus is the "Fritz Heckert" College in Bernau, which features since 1956 a three-year course of study for trade union functionaries ending with an examination for a diploma in social science, the equivalent of an academic degree. The College also offers shorter courses and undertakes certain research functions relating to the trade unions. Between 1952 and 1965, 2,546 union officials completed courses of one or more years' duration at the College.[14] Another thousand or so had taken courses of correspondence study. In addition, the College has received significant numbers of foreign trade unionists from Asia and Africa and provided them with some measure of training.

The Scientific Union is the component of the FDGB that plays the largest part in higher education (the Artists' Union, the Union of Educators and Teachers, and the Public Health Union figure only incidentally in higher educational affairs). Along with local SED units and the FDJ organizations at colleges and universities, the FDGB seeks to perform a number of functions: to provide leadership for the implementation of official policy, to express the interests of society in the functioning of higher education, to relate academic pursuits to the requirements of the economy, and to knit the various elements of higher education -- administration, faculty, students, staff, and employees -- together into a unified organizational and ideological pattern. The Scientific Union, which has a central executive committee (chaired by Gerhard Junghähnel with Horst Sander as first deputy) and holds periodic conferences of delegates from all local units, appears to be organized in a parallel relation to university organization. Thus, since the latest reform of higher education, the Union organization matches up with the hierarchical pattern of authority and, at the same time, with the division of institutions into clusters, the so-called sections, of related disciplines.[15] The arrangement seems well suited to the FDGB emphasis on close relations among the different constituencies of higher education.[16] But that requires close cooperation with the FDJ, and it is perhaps no accident that, in the course of its campaign for the higher educational reform, FDGB spokesmen stressed the importance of such collaboration in giving direction to the development of the universities and colleges as elements of the East German economy and of an integrated educational system.[17]

The FDJ

The Free German Youth (*Freie Deutsche Jugend* = FDJ) figures, alongside the FDGB and local SED organizations, as a primary agent of official influence on higher education. Whereas the FDGB focuses more on the faculty level, the FDJ concerns itself chiefly with students and young graduates (*Nachwuchs*); both organizations participate in the routing of deserving students into higher education, both by certifying their political reliability and, in some cases, by identifying likely candidates who might not otherwise seek admission to college or university.

Higher education is, on the other hand, far from being the principal concern of the FDJ. Its efforts have focused far more on the younger age groups and, in recent years, rather more on members of the GDR military forces than on the youth of college or university age. This emphasis is underscored in the Politburo communique on youth problems, issued in fall 1963:

> We call upon the members and officials of the FDJ to ally themselves and form close friendship with all young people, especially with those from 14 to 18 years of age, in the plants and cooperatives, in unions and athletic organizations, in schools and neighborhoods, in order to help each girl and boy to develop his or her personality, broaden his or her horizons, and deepen his or her consciousness as builders of a socialist Germany.

> This requires the FDJ to strengthen its Marxist-Leninist educational work in its own ranks and among youth and to concern itself with the interesting and meaningful leisure time of all youth in their neighborhoods.[18]

At the same time there is plenty of documentary evidence that the FDJ is expected to function constructively in higher education too. Parts of the evidence point to the responsibilities of youth and educational officials to give appropriate recognition to the FDJ; other parts sound more like warnings to the FDJ to improve its performance. Some of this double-edged quality appears in the "Bases for the Building of the Integrated Socialist Educational System," worked out at the instance of the Sixth SED Party Congress by a commission chaired by Alexander Abusch in 1964:

> The FDJ must in its work with students align itself with student interests and promote the determination and ambition of students to achieve. The scientific student competition and the work of the student circles, carried out in collaboration with the FDJ, are particularly useful in this connection. The permeation of the FDJ's politico-ideological work with student problems and tasks helps to forge an exciting intellectual life for students in their organizations and underscores the coincident educational tasks of teachers and the FDJ.[19]

Statutory documents are more inclined to stress the role the FDJ is legally empowered to play in higher education. The Law on the Integrated Socialist Educational System, a product in part of the aforementioned commission report, contains in paragraph 58 the following provisions:

> (2) Students make use of their right of co-determination through their social organization, the Free German Youth. The representatives of the Free German Youth take part in the work of the leading bodies of the universities and colleges with a seat and a vote.
>
> (3) The rectors of the universities and colleges and the deans of the faculties are obliged to co-operate with the Free German Youth. They promote such forms of student scientific activity as student circles, student research groups and student emulation.[20]

The provisions of the Youth Law of 1964 repeat this basic idea in briefer form, but add the requirement, aimed at government organs in paragraph 17, that research must be promoted to learn more about the "many-faceted problems arising out of the active participation of the younger generation in the comprehensive building of socialism," emphasizing specifically the need to investigate the role of the FDJ in socialist educational development and to make research findings available to the FDJ.[21]

The FDJ was founded originally in 1946, under the chairmanship of Erich Honecker and with SMAD permission, as a general youth organization, directed like all other new organizations of the time against fascism but not confined to communists and, indeed, avoiding indications of any intention of socializing the SBZ. Only at the Third FDJ Parliament in 1949 were the goals of the SED explicitly endorsed as those of the FDJ; and only in the constitution adopted in 1952 did the FDJ range itself directly and expressly under SED leadership and become a mass organization in the instrumental sense. Its role at the universities had already been considerable as an agency of politicization (see Chapter I, above), but its performance also left much to be desired, and there was still a point of view that the FDJ would be more effective as an essentially non-political youth organization. The conflict was resolved finally in 1957 when the FDJ declared itself to be a socialist youth organization and a "reliable helper of the SED."

It is in this role that FDJ organizations function at all colleges and universities. Its effectiveness is still dubious, for active participation is apparently avoided by most students, but the government and party continue to rely on the organization for assistance, especially when new measures are being introduced. Some 130,000 full-time students at universities, colleges, and technical schools were reported to belong to the FDJ in 1967, and the leverage that the leadership can exert -- through its role in admissions policy and in distribution of scholarship aid particularly -- is considerable, at least in securing passive acceptance of innovations.

Under the terms of the latest higher educational reform, FDJ representatives sit on all the important policy-making bodies at colleges and universities. Activities among students focus on propagating official ideology in FDJ-organized seminar and research groups, on diminishing the numbers of premature interruptions of academic work, and on directing the attention of its student circles (over 600 of them in 1967) on the practical problems of production in the economy.[22]

The FDJ has schools of its own for the training of leaders, notably the Wilhelm Pieck Youth Academy in Bogensee, but these do not grant degrees.

Higher Educational Policy

In the two decades that followed establishment of the GDR as, one might say, an increasingly sovereign state, policies governing higher education have been a mirror of and to some degree a key to the most fundamental concerns of the regime. As the GDR won greater acceptance and eventually effective equality in the socialist commonwealth (i.e., in the Warsaw Pact and, above all, in COMECON), it tied its economy ever closer to the Soviet Union and the Soviet design for an East European economic division of labor. Correspondingly, the GDR became ever more inclined to apply Soviet models in higher education, models that perpetuated some of the features of the occupation but at the same time assured the Soviet Union of

East German faithfulness to an eastern orientation. Moreover, the Soviet experience in higher education had the advantage of seeming to incorporate a Marxist-Leninist prescription as well as a body of knowledge about the links between education and planned economy, between training and indoctrination on the one hand and economic development on the other.

This tendency had several tangible effects, from the introduction of the ten-month academic year soon after the founding of the GDR to the systematic building of a polytechnical type of pre-university schooling that also carried over into higher education as well, in the form of practical experience in industry or agriculture as a prerequisite for full enjoyment of the advantages of advanced academic training. It also led quite directly, if also slowly, to a marked shift in academic emphases, from the relatively balanced relationship of disciplines in the immediate postwar years, as shown in faculty composition and enrollment choices of students, to a decided favoring of scientific and technical subjects. A goodly share of what was left in social sciences and humanities owed its existence to ideological presuppositions, moreover, and the urge to indoctrinate a new generation in the tenets of Marxism-Leninism. Thus, civic training, the transmission of an official doctrine pertinent to all professional specialization, came to occupy a major segment of what the German tradition would have called humane learning or Geisteswissenschaften. This emphasis combined with an overriding necessity for trained leaders for industrial and agricultural development to produce a veritable infatuation with economic management. That is the field which, more than any other, forms the bridge between natural science and technology on the one hand and social science and ideology on the other. When a certain degree of economic development had been achieved, or -- perhaps an equally valid formulation -- when the inherited wisdom of planned economy threatened to bring about total breakdown, it was the cluster of disciplines surrounding socialist economics that led the GDR into a new and quite recent infatuation with scientific organization, electronic data processing, information retrieval, and the like. Hence the current emphasis on the scientific-technological revolution.

No account of underlying SED motives for educational policy would be complete without mention of the veritable wave of patriotism and the accompanying counterpoint of militarian-antimilitarism. A military note has permeated all of East German society, always with assurances that it is designed to combat the real militarism of the imperialist west. It has afflicted higher education as much as other segments of society by becoming a standard part of civic training at all educational levels and by figuring so prominently in the reward-penalty system that exploits the usefulness of higher education to the individual East German as a means of social advancement. It must be said immediately that this new form of militarism has little or nothing to do with the Prussian tradition that was supposedly wiped out by the occupation, for the popular response has consistently disappointed the regime. It has to do rather with a near-paranoia about West Germany, an aspect of East German life that is shared by none of the country's East European allies. The GDR is not in fact frightened of West German military capabilities; it is frightened on two other levels -- in its concern to capture (selectively) the German cultural inheritance and make good its claim to speak for that which is enduring in German tradition and in its anxiety that the Federal Republic could erode the considerable role that the GDR has built for itself as a major (in some fields almost monopolistic) industrial supplier for Eastern Europe. Patriotism and militarism thus serve, among youth particularly, to awaken a sense of national identity separate from and opposed to the lingering affinity for brethren in the west. It is not a case of national assertiveness producing militarism, but of the use of patriotic and militaristic slogans to underscore a weak variety of national consciousness. One of the fruitful outcomes of this policy, it must be acknowledged, is found in the realm of higher education and cultural policy, where resources are available to an extent not warranted by economic consideration for cultural and intellectual pursuits. This is one of the few factors currently stemming the wave of enthusiasm for science and technology.

The motives of Soviet emulation, enthusiasm for science, and urge to national consciousness have been accompanied by a social process, though not by any means a steady one, of knitting East Germany together into a social fabric that tolerates, if it does not quite endorse, the immutable presuppositions that have underlain the regime's developmental efforts. The external manifestation of the process has been graduation from the status of an occupied country to that of junior partner in the East European system to that of full participant and, in some respects, leading partner. The progression has been expressed as, first, dedication to democratization, second, the building of socialism, and finally the effort to realize socialism in the fullest sense. Such slogans also have an internal manifestation, again part of the background of higher educational policy. From a basic alteration of the composition of higher education, the GDR moved to an effort to consolidate its control and centralize direction of both the content and procedures of higher education. The stage that commenced around 1965, still being worked out, was a thoroughgoing permeation of academic life by planning, coordination, and appropriate structural modification, to the end of making it an instrument for the march, intellectual as well as economic, toward socialism.

When one looks back upon the course traversed from 1950 to 1965, the impression is of a slow, faltering progression, usually more dramatic in slogan than in reality, to the point where a genuine reform could be initiated.

Whether or not one likes what has happened since 1965, the vigor with which new measures have been introduced makes the previous fifteen years look very meager indeed. The principal milestones of the period 1950-1965, for the sake of comparison with those of the five years thereafter, may be summarized as follows:

1. Early in 1951 the SED Central Committee released its deliberations on higher education and a month later the government announced a set of directives on university education.[23] The striking thing about both is that the themes and concerns of that time have been so constant, not necessarily in their realization but certainly in direction and emphasis. The SED was then still speaking of the "democratic unity of Germany" as the purpose higher education should serve, but it was also already stressing the specialized skills needed to fulfill the current economic plan. The demands uttered then were for a unified basic course in social sciences (Marxism-Leninism), for utilizing Soviet examples, for promotion of natural science, for a ten-month academic year that would include time for practical work and examinations. The SED also called for a state secretariat exercising central control of higher education and, as usual, for improvements in party and FDJ work in organizing and persuading faculty and students. The government order that followed was largely a translation of SED demands into regulations, establishing thereby the State Secretariat with responsibility for higher and technical education. This was

followed throughout 1951 by a series of supplementary orders on such matters as state appointment of assistant deans for special responsibilities, the content of the basic course in social science, and obligatory study of Russian. Indeed the process continued for several years up to the Third Conference on Higher Education in early 1958, as party and state worked out further details of higher educational practice from the status of Workers' and Peasants' Faculties through introduction of the practical year of work in production to the formal regulations on degree-granting.[24]

2. By 1958 the GDR was ready to talk about a socialist refashioning of higher education.[25] Party and state had achieved greater clarity, and perhaps more self-confidence, as they proclaimed higher education's central role in making science and technology serve socialist construction. The crucial addition to earlier regulations was to underscore the State Secretariat's authority to subject higher education to strict planning that would extend from admissions policies to allocation of people to specializations needed by the state and its economy. After appropriate intra-governmental consultation, the State Secretariat was to extend its prescriptive function into the details of curriculum and research emphasis, all in accordance with planning and the resulting norms in the realm of scholarship and training.

It was at this stage that "the integrated socialist educational system" became an insistent slogan, representing the degree to which previous efforts had failed to adjust higher education to economic need and the renewed perception that the whole range of educational elements had to be unified into a system and that system tailored to the priorities of economic growth. It was characteristic for this stage that, as the integrated system developed with its assorted paths to higher education, the special arrangements, notably Workers' and Peasants' Faculties, were gradually dismantled in favor of regularized ways of routing talent through the educational system.[26] But at the same time as a seeming normalization of the system was taking place, the shadow of faulty planning fell across higher education in the early 1960's, culminating in abandonment of the current seven-year economic plan and providing some of the impulse toward a still more systematic integration of the educational process into the desired forms and practices of social and economic development. Before that would happen, however, the period ending in the mid-1960's saw the introduction of more candid carrot-and-stick methods of using admissions policies and scholarships to underscore the regime's commitments to the joining of practical and theoretical work, i.e., the inclusion of production labor in academic plans, and to the growing importance of military service. This stage, dramatized by the erection of the Berlin Wall in 1961, also saw something of the fruits of previous policies, however incompetently these may have been executed by the various educational officials.[27] Some 20% of the East German youth between 18 and 25 years of age were engaged in some aspect of academic preparation; of these, some 80% of technical school students and well over half of university and college students were clustered in the natural sciences and technological disciplines.[28] The balance sheet for the period up to 1965 is difficult to draw, for the results are at once staggering in relation to what the GDR inherited a decade and a half earlier and extremely modest in relation to what the regime had proclaimed as higher educational goals.

The New Reform Movement

Despite some real innovations that have appeared over the last five years, one has the feeling that the current reform of higher education is a repetition of earlier campaigns, albeit one that is proceeding with greater self-assurance and determination. At the same time, the campaign is far from complete: it covers plans extending through 1975 or 1980, more realistic than those of the ill-fated seven-year plan no doubt but still impossible to assess at this mid-way point.

The current reform is rooted in legislation of 1965, most notably the Law on the Integrated Socialist Educational System (its higher educational section appears in Appendix E), the new statute of the State Secretariat, and a Law on the Contract System in the Socialist Economy. One might add the Youth Law of the previous year and the still earlier but most fundamental New Economic System of

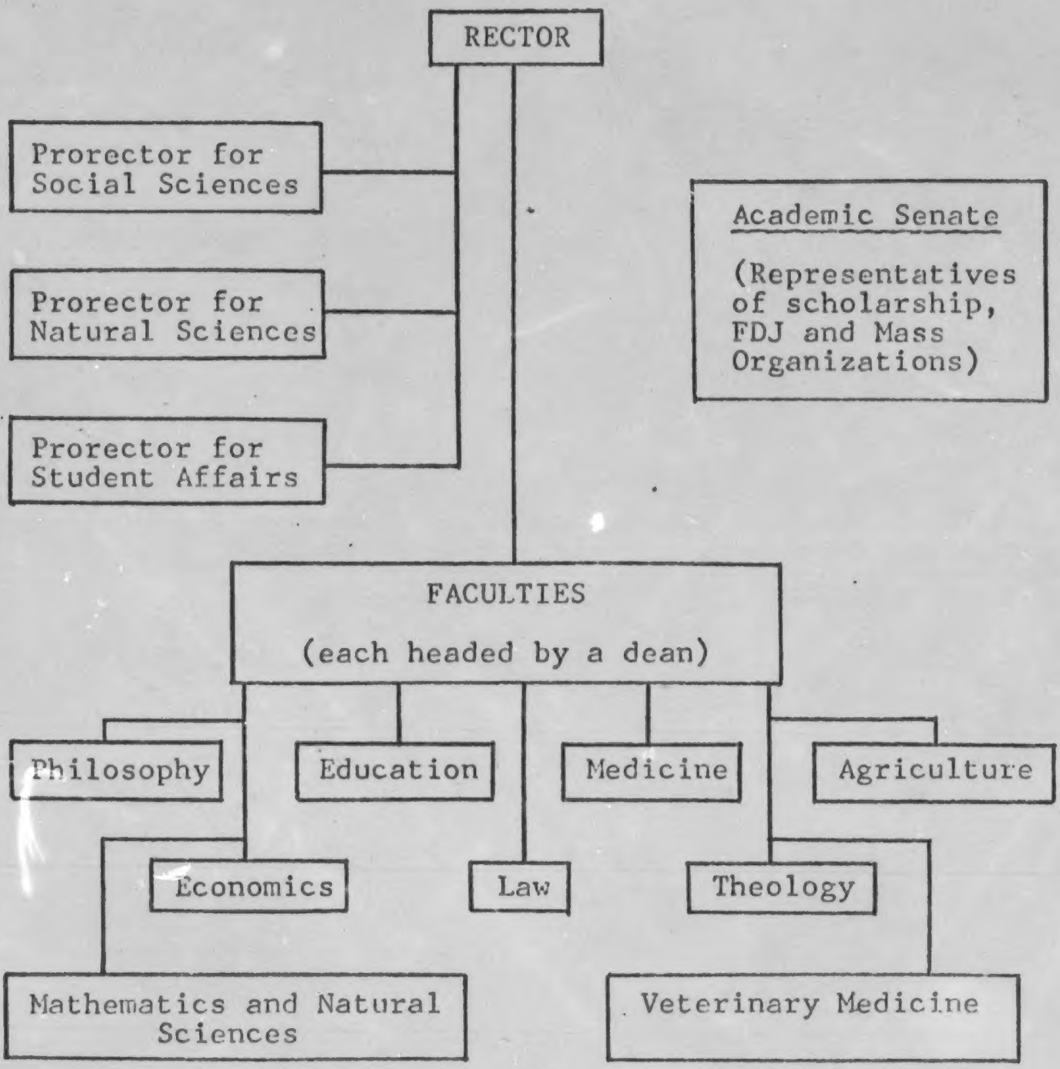
Planning and Direction of the Economy. Most of the underlying principles (and much of the rhetoric) of subsequent developments in higher education were contained in these enactments in embryo, and the details regarding colleges and universities were worked out on the basis of the Law on the Integrated Socialist Educational System, with pronounced deference to the economic framework of the new economic system.

The Sixth Party Congress of the SED had given out the assignment to refurbish the educational system in terms of a comprehensive building of socialism. By early 1966 the original version of a set of "Principles" for higher educational development was in circulation. A revised version (see Appendix E, II) dated 1 December 1966 was taken up in great detail at the Fourth Conference on Higher Education (Appendix E, III), which was at least in part a preparation for the Seventh Party Congress. The Congress met in April 1967 and Walter Ulbricht announced the government's adoption of these "Principles for Further Development of Teaching and Research at Institutions of Higher Education in the German Democratic Republic."[29] In the same period, the State Secretariat, with its new statute of 1965 stressing above all the planning function,[30] was elevated in status to the ministry level.

For about three years, then, the educational authorities have been working out the details of the reform and attempting to translate them into practice. New regulations have been issued on the granting of degrees, the appointment of faculty, and the compensation of academic personnel. Meanwhile, the experimental introduction of the reform in Berlin, Jena, and Magdeburg afford some insight into the major changes contemplated. The traditional faculties are being disbanded, with some exceptions, to form more comprehensive units known as "sections" and designed as disciplinary clusters directly related to economic needs for both trained personnel and research. (See charts below.) The customary faculty bodies, the university senates, are replaced by councils in which extra-university elements, particularly mass organizations, are strongly represented. And academic training is divided into stages, the third and most specialized of which has two paths. "Special study" ends with a diploma and suggests lesser accomplishment (or ability), while "research study" culminates in the usual doctoral degree and is intended to serve the future "leading forces of socialist society."

UNIVERSITY ORGANIZATION (example: Humboldt University Berlin)*

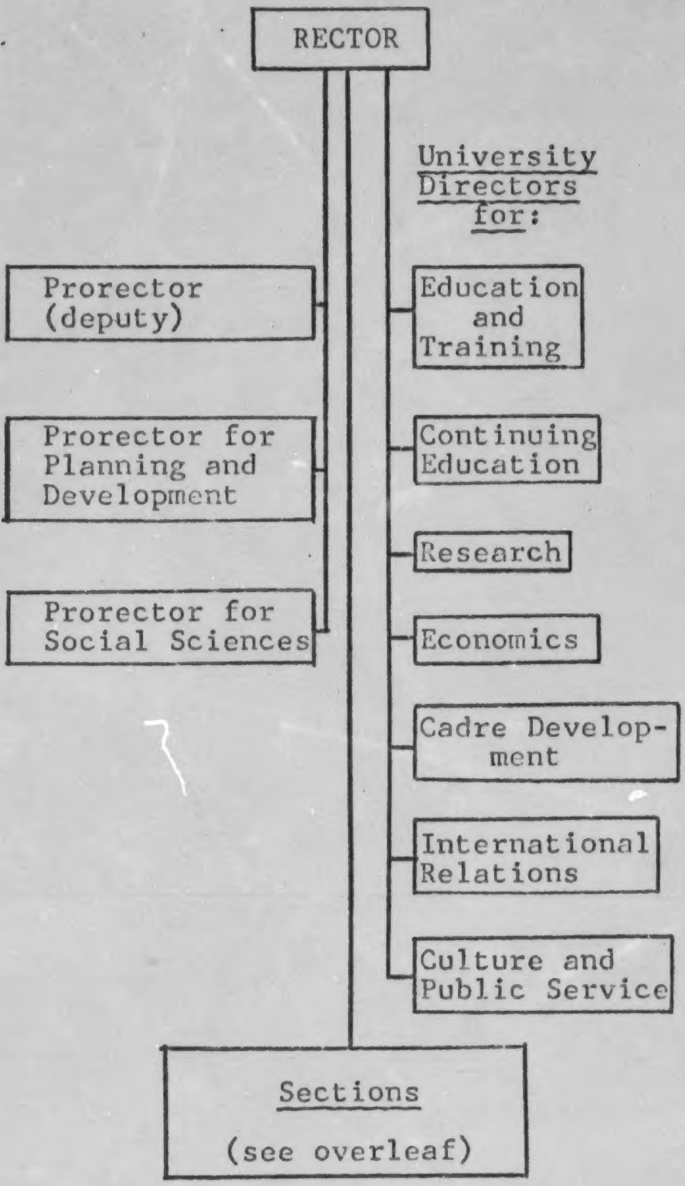
Pre-reform Pattern:


RECTOR
Prorector for Social Sciences
Prorector for Natural Sciences
Prorector for Student Affairs
Academic Senate
(Representatives of scholarship, FDJ and Mass Organizations)
FACULTIES
(each headed by a dean)
Philosophy
Education
Medicine
Agriculture
Economics
Law
Theology
Mathematics and Natural Sciences
Veterinary Medicine

*Source: Der Speigel, No. 12, 1969, p. 42.

UNIVERSITY ORGANIZATION (cont.)

Post-reform Pattern:


RECTOR
University Directors for:
Prorector (deputy)
Prorector for Planning and Development
Prorector for Social Sciences
Education and Training
Continuing Education
Research
Economics
Cadre Development
International Relations
Culture and Public Service
Sections
(see overleaf)

Council

(Faculty, students, staff, and employees) elects the rector and representatives to the Academic Council

Social Council

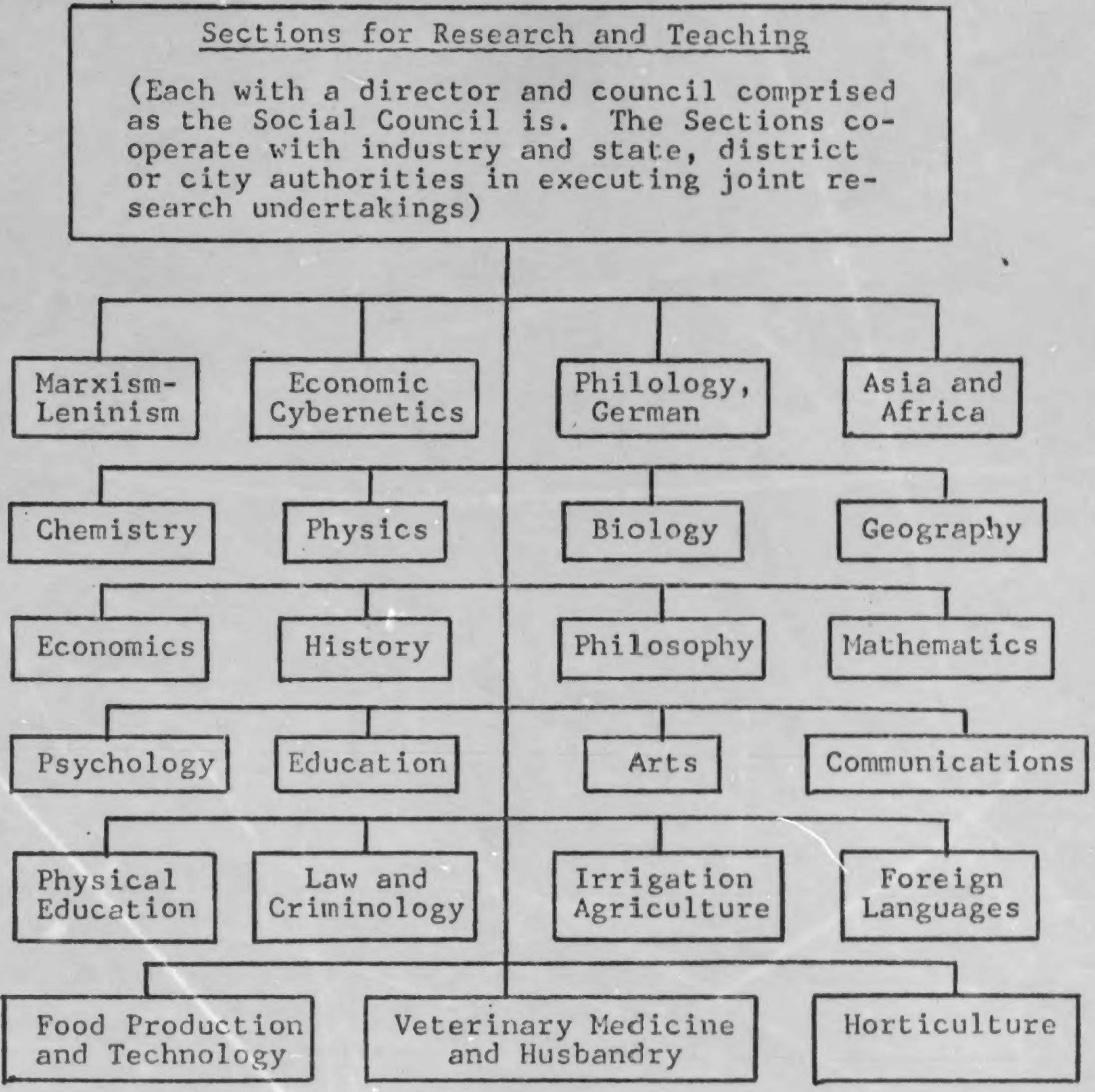
(University members and representatives of party, state, mass organizations and industry) furthers influence of socialist practice in the University

Academic Council

(Scholars, students, staff, and employees) advises rector in academic questions

UNIVERSITY ORGANIZATION (Cont.)

Post-reform Pattern (cont.):



Sections for Research and Teaching

(Each with a director and council comprised as the Social Council is. The Sections cooperate with industry and state, district or city authorities in executing joint research undertakings)

- Marxism-Leninism
- Economic Cybernetics
- Philology, German
- Asia and Africa
- Chemistry
- Physics
- Biology
- Geography
- Economics
- History
- Philosophy
- Mathematics
- Psychology
- Education
- Arts
- Communications
- Physical Education
- Law and Criminology
- Irrigation Agriculture
- Foreign Languages
- Food Production and Technology
- Veterinary Medicine and Husbandry
- Horticulture

The other major change takes the form of comprehensive specialization of universities in both research and training to suit their work to regional industrial strengths (see also Chapter V, below). Thus, Magdeburg has signed contracts with six state enterprises concerning scientific-technological cooperation. Jena, by the same token, has concentrated its efforts in fields important to the Zeiss works, forming a so-called Jena Ensemble that accounts for 75% of the university's research potential. Rostock will specialize in maritime matters; Dresden in electronics.[32]

The full implications of these developments are difficult to measure, but there can be no doubt that East German higher education has finally been harnassed to the requirements of industrial growth for the foreseeable future.

Chapter III: Footnotes

1. Office of the U.S. High Commissioner for Germany: *Soviet Zone Constitution and Electoral Law* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1951), p. i; and *Ulbrichts Grundgesetz; Die sozialistische Verfassung der DDR* (Cologne: Verlag Wissenschaft und Politik, 1968), introduction by Dietrich Müller-Römer, pp. 11-16.
2. *Soviet Zone Constitution*, pp. 17-18.
3. *Die Verfassung der Sowjetischen Besatzungszone Deutschlands* (Frankfurt & Berlin: Alfred Metzner Verlag, rev. ed. 1966), pp. 188-220; see also Müller-Römer, op. cit.
4. As reproduced in Jean Edward Smith: *Germany Beyond the Wall* (Boston: Little, Brown and Co., 1969), pp. 250-251, 253-254.
5. Siegfried Baske and Martha Engelbert: *Zwei Jahrzehnte Bildungspolitik in der Sowjetzone Deutschlands* (Heidelberg: Quelle & Meyer, 1966), Vol. II, pp. 450-456, reprinted from the GDR *Gesetzblatt*, 1965, Part II, no. 84, pp. 629-632.
6. *A bis Z* (Bonn: Deutscher Bundes-Verlag, 1969), p. 761.
7. *Ibid*, pp. 290-291.
8. *Ibid*, p. 291.
9. *Ibid*, pp. 745-746.
10. *Ibid*, p. 290.
11. *Ibid*, pp. 460-461.

12. And with corresponding representation in district and local legislative bodies. *Ibid*, p. 192.

13. *Handbuch der Deutschen Demokratischen Republik* (Berlin: Staatsverlag der DDR, 1963), pp. 127-128.

14. *A bis Z*, op. cit., p. 193.

15. Gerhard Junghähnel and Horst Sander, "Gewerkschaft Wissenschaft und Hochschulreform," *Das Hochschulwesen*, Vol. 16, No. 5, May 1968, pp. 315 ff.

16. *Ibid*, p. 322; see also Lothar Gripinski, "Aufgaben der Gewerkschaft in der Hochschulreform," *Das Hochschulwesen*, Vol. 16, No. 7, July 1968, p. 490.

17. Junghähnel, op. cit., pp. 321-322.

18. Reprinted from *Neues Deutschland*, 21 September 1963, in Siegfried Dübel: *Dokumente zur Jugendpolitik der SED* (Munich: Juventa Verlag, 1966), pp. 75-76.

19. Reprinted from *Deutsche Lehrerzeitung*, 8 May 1964, in Dübel, p. 126.

20. *Education and Training in the German Democratic Republic* (Berlin: Staatsverlag der DDR, 1966), p. 110.

21. Reprinted from *Neues Deutschland*, 5 May 1964, in Dübel, pp. 91-92.

22. *A bis Z*, op. cit., pp. 194-199.

23. Baske and Engelbert, op. cit., pp. 174-184.

24. *Ibid*, passim.

25. *Ibid*, pp. 353-377.

26. Ernst Richert: "*Sozialistische Universität*" (Berlin: Colloquium Verlag, 1967), p. 206.

27. *Ibid*, pp. 210-212.

28. *Ibid*, p. 219.

29. Summarized in Kurt Geisel, "Die 'Prinzipien' zur Umgestaltung des Hochschulwesens," *Informationsdienst zum Bildungswesen in Osteuropa*, No. 14/15, Berlin 1968, pp. 103-110.

30. Baske and Engelbert, op. cit., pp. 450-456.

31. *Der Spiegel*, No. 12, 1969, pp. 41-44.

32. *Ibid*.

Chapter IV

HIGHER EDUCATION AND THE ECONOMY

Official East German sources place great emphasis on the advances the country has made in higher education since 1945. A favorite citation in this connection is a UNESCO report of 1960 showing that the GDR expended the equivalent of $79 per capita for educational purposes, a level of outlay that placed it fourth among all the countries of the world.[1] Evidence of this sort goes beyond the kinds of explanation that stress the generally high level of educational outlays in socialist countries and in all countries that are in process of industrializing. For East Germany is neither so wealthy that it can afford cultural luxuries on a large scale nor so backward industrially that a dramatic rise in the training level of industrial and managerial manpower is a clear prerequisite for any economic improvement. It may well be demonstrable that the GDR inherited a less highly skilled reservoir of manpower than did West Germany; it is certain that it was less well-endowed with educational plant and personnel after 1945, even without regard for the losses of outstanding scientists to the victorious powers and whatever effects the Russian collection of reparations had on the educational system. But it is equally clear that the GDR started with modern economic habits and skills more deeply ingrained in its population than any other East European country save perhaps Czechoslovakia. The conclusion is inescapable that there has been a dialectical and mutually reinforcing relationship between the impressive economic advances recorded in East Germany, especially in the last decade, and the equally impressive investment in education and research. It is not, in other words, a matter of one factor making the other possible, but of the two interacting. Decisions that fortify such interaction are of course more readily reached in a highly centralized planned economy and system of political authority, a consideration that bears along with socialist ideology on the favorite East German comparison, namely that with West Germany or with Western Europe generally. On the other hand, such factors do not set East Germany apart from its eastern neighbors; and if one makes comparisons in that direction, as East Germans are not prone to do (at least in public), one is driven back upon the relatively modernized condition in which the GDR was born as an explanation for the country's striking advances both in industrial production and in education and science.

The official rhetoric which is used to present these matters in East German sources cannot of course be taken altogether at face value. The programmatic element noted in regard to constitutional provisions applies also to formulations about higher education and sometimes says more about goals than about present reality. Yet the rhetoric is anything but empty if one is seeking to grasp the priorities that obtain in the direction and policies of the regime. For the evidence, spotty as it is, tends to support the official message that the twin elements of concern here, higher education and scientific research, do indeed enjoy a topmost priority in the GDR.

It is a natural consequence of the close relationship between industrialization and modernization of the economy in general, on the one hand, and exceptional levels of support for higher education and research, on the other, that higher education pays a penalty. This is not peculiar to socialist or centralized systems, but is a commonplace phenomenon wherever educational systems are seen as serving a public interest. The institutions of higher education impair their autonomy in some measure by entering into types of activity that can be paid for out of external funding. In East Germany the phenomenon is simply more explicitly recognized, indeed enforced, and is correspondingly more pervasive because higher education is so completely dependent on central authorities. It has thus not been difficult for the regime to introduce structural changes in higher education, in addition to pushing its case for certain content and instructional emphases. The penalty referred to is, from the point of view of those valuing institutional autonomy and the resulting authority to determine content and structure of education within the professional academic community itself, that the whole system of higher education becomes an agent of economic policies. The recent reform of higher education provides a telling illustration of this tendency, in that each facet of the reform emphasizes the immediate concerns of the regime for strengthening its economic base.

Instilling such values as ideological purity and patriotism plays an important role in the declamations that accompany official sponsorship of change, but even these figure less prominently than the harnessing of higher education to serve economic growth. That phenomenon would not necessarily seem to be a penalty to those who accept the goals of the regime, but it will have a distinct effect on the overall shape and thrust of higher education for some time to come. And it is presumably not outside the realm of possibility that what now seems imperative in terms of economic growth will at some later date appear as a weakness, perhaps in the relative neglect of less obviously useful fields as the humanities, perhaps in the overly practical emphasis applied to science itself. It seems plausible, at any rate, to view the reform measures introduced since the mid-sixties, as Peter Christian Ludz does, namely as a shortcut to enlarged investment in the short run by mobilizing university and college resources for applied research, much of it carried out in terms of contractual instruments binding educational institutions to socialist economic enterprises.

As Ludz puts it, "The long-term goal of the regime is the eventual formation of large-scale research organizations (Grossforschungsverbände) or scientific corporations (wissenschaftliche Kombinate)." Eventually "these large research organizations will be just as dominant in the scientific and technological fields as the 'socialist trusts' now are in industry." He continues:

> There has also been change in the nature of scientific research itself. The regime has often stated its intention to see to the direct and expeditious application of scientific knowledge to industrial production and to the expansion and improvement of mass production, primarily for the East European markets. As a result, scientific research is increasingly being channelled into applied research for the benefit of the State-Owned Enterprises. The goal is therefore not so much to obtain new results from research and to use them in production, but to use existing knowledge as effectively and as quickly as possible to enhance mass production techniques and therefore commercial success. Since the total research capacity is limited, basic research has decreased.

As Ludz warns, "A short-range economic expansion achieved through intensification of applied research may be followed by a considerable economic contraction after 1975. By then, at the latest, this 'overconcentration' on certain selected branches of research will certainly begin to take its toll." The accompanying reorientation of higher education toward research involves a striving for greater efficiency and reduced duration of programs of study, all with a view to maximizing economic performance.[2] There are signs that the comprehensive reform of higher education is proceeding less smoothly than the regime intended. But it was carefully prepared and is backed by the very considerable leverage available to the state and party. The questions that remain open concern the degree of enthusiasm that can be mustered to serve as the engine of reform and the unforeseen losses that may occur after this singleminded modification of the academic community has taken root.

Meanwhile, it is possible to document sufficiently the level of investment in higher education and research to support the thesis that the GDR is outstanding by any standard in its valuation of this aspect of its policy. Statistics, it must be noted, are extremely unreliable for purposes of precise calculations. Published data are often organized differently from year to year; it is frequently difficult if not impossible to know which rubrics contain which outlays; and things reported for a series of years may suddenly disappear the next year. Nevertheless, for the purposes of this analysis the available data are adequate as indicators of the economic importance placed on higher education and scientific research in the GDR.

Since virtually all of higher education is financed from the state budget, enrollment figures provide a fairly reliable non-fiscal indicator of the rate of growth of the educational establishment. From July 1945 to October 1946 the seven newly reopened universities enrolled their first 8,200 students.[3] By 1955, after the GDR had established a network of diversified ancillary institutions, there were about 75,000 students enrolled in some form of higher education, substantially more than had been studying in all of Germany in 1936. In comparative terms, these enrollments (which include correspondence students) represented 42 students for each 10,000 of population, an increase from 17 a half-decade earlier -- at which point East German higher education had just about equalled the per capita enrollments of Weimar Germany in 1928. [4]

By academic year 1962-63, enrollments had risen to 114,000, approximately 67 students per 10,000 of population, buttressing the East German claim to first place among central and western European countries. At the same time, enrollments in technical schools had risen from 19 students to 82 students per 10,000 of population from 1951 to 1963. Thus, for all institutions within the jurisdiction of the State Secretariat for Higher and Technical Education, the authorities could point to a quarter million students in a population of about 17 million, roughly 150 for each 10,000 of population. [5]

Still more pertinent to the economy are the figures on graduations, the numbers of trained individuals presumably channeled into productive employment. This dividend for society amounted to 4,600 graduates of colleges and universities in 1951, 7,600 in 1955, just over 15,000 in 1960, and nearly 20,000 in 1965. Expressed differently, the colleges and universities had, for the decade ending in 1965, turned out an average of just under 14,000 graduates a year. In addition, the technical schools graduated a yearly average of about 36,000 persons in the same decade, so that, as an East German source expressed it, "out of every 1,000 people employed in the economy of the country, 28 have received college education and 50 trade school training." [6]

In terms of the direction of development, it should be added that both higher and technical education peaked early in the decade of the sixties, technical education enrollments in 1961-62 and higher education enrollments in 1963-64. Although higher education graduations continued to rise until mid-decade, these represented in part a function of persons already in the "pipe line," and new admissions fell off at the outset of the period and then remained fairly steady. In the technical schools, enrollments dipped in mid-decade and then rose fairly sharply again. In both realms the totals near the end of the decade were fairly close to those obtaining early in the sixties. Tendencies observable within the totals include, for both higher and technical education, a rather substantial increase toward the end of the decade in the share of enrollments taken by women, a fairly steady proportion of students on scholarship, and a moderate increase in the proportion of students in higher education engaged in full-time study, as opposed to correspondence or evening study, while that proportion was decreasing moderately in technical schools.

With respect to fields of study, the disciplinary shifts within the student population are of great economic significance. (See especially Tables V and VI in Appendix C.) In most academic fields the enrollment and graduation figures held rather steady, meaning a proportional drop as the totals increased. The noteworthy fluctuations occurred in mathematics and natural sciences where graduations remained fairly constant but enrollments rose between 1960 and 1968; in technical sciences where both enrollments and graduates increased quite sharply; in both medicine and agriculture (including forestry, veterinary medicine, and horticulture) where enrollments fell substantially while graduations rose slightly for agriculture and related fields and rather sharply for medicine; in economics, law and journalism where graduations dropped, reflecting a mid-decade slump in enrollments, which had, however, recovered almost to 1960 levels by 1968; and finally in education where both enrollments and graduations increased substantially though not evenly. Only education and the technical sciences contributed in a large way to enrollment increases between 1960 and 1968; while only education, medicine, and technical sciences shared significantly in overall increases in graduations for the same period.

The projections embodied in the higher educational reform and its plans to 1975 or 1980 indicate another period of rising enrollments and graduations to come, albeit without corresponding increases in the size of the higher and technical educational establishment, since larger numbers are supposed to be handled more efficiently and in shortened periods of study. As an East German source states, "By 1975, for example, the number of scientifically trained cadres in the national economy should be increased two and a half times, so that the GDR can keep pace with the tempo of development of the scientific-technological revolution."[7] This suggests, in turn, that development planned for the next decade will intensify the shift toward scientific and technical disciplines that are most immediately applicable to the needs of industrial production and management.

Another way of looking at the priority accorded higher education and research is to examine the state budget, since that contains a full, though sometimes imperfectly distinguished, picture of expenditure for these purposes.[8] It has to be noted, in this regard as with respect to the preceding consideration of magnitudes of student involvement, that comparisons with other countries can be exceedingly misleading. The GDR has been generally successful in developing an integrated educational system, one which regards the educational process as extending from kindergarten (or before) through graduate study and on into professional life. The distinctions between levels tend to become blurred in such a system, and it is correspondingly difficult to ascertain just what magnitudes of investment or student participation in education is, strictly speaking, confined to higher education. Thus, the favored comparisons with West Germany would have to make allowance for the relative isolation there of such fields as technical schooling and continuing education from university education in order to be accurate. On the other hand, if one's concern is to assess the standing of higher education within East German society, then their system should be credited, whether in terms of enrollments or in terms of investment, with the inclusion of those emphases that may seem extraneous in other systems but have been given an important standing in the GDR educational scheme. The effort here, therefore, is to gauge the importance assigned to higher education in East German society, relative to other functions and activities in that society, and not relative to what other societies do in this regard. The further qualification that is needed is that some educational expenditures, for example, those for military education or for party schools, do not appear in official East German statistics as educational outlays because they fall outside the jurisdiction of the Ministry for Higher and Technical Education. More important still, the function of teacher training falls under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Education; and many of the functions associated with adult or continuing education fall under rubrics outside the higher educational and scientific appropriations, even though they oftentimes relate closely to enhanced technical or cultural qualifications that bear on higher education. The principal lesson to be derived from budgetary statistics, then, has to do with the direction and magnitude of higher educational and scientific development, taking the available figures not as comprehensive measures of investment, still less as data that can be compared without elaborate adjustments with those from other countries, but simply as tangible indicators that GDR spokesmen mean what they say when they accord the highest priorities to education and training.

One starts with the realization that state expenditures in the realm of education, research, social security, and public health (i.e., roughly equivalent to Health, Education, and Welfare) have for some years constituted well over a third of the state budget. Allocations for these categories edged up toward one-third through the early fifties and then continued beyond that level until 1968 when such expenditures accounted for some 40% of the state budget. Within the category, social security and insurance formed the major item, one that tripled between 1950 and 1968. Public health and welfare was in the second position, just ahead of higher education and technical schools; both headings increased about threefold in less than two decades. Expenditures for higher education and technical schools alone passed the two billion DM level in 1953, and by 1968 was nearing the five billion level. (See Appendix C, Table I.)

Narrowing the perspective somewhat, the categories that bear most directly on higher education and research include higher education itself, science, art, art preservation, and mass cultural work. In the decade 1953-1963, when the state budget was growing from less than 35 billion DM to more than 56 billion DM, expenditures for the aforementioned categories rose from 1.25 billion DM to more than 2.33 billion (but not including such outlays as those for technical education apparently, thus accounting for figures lower than those given above from the 1969 Statistical Yearbook). Outlays for universities and colleges alone approximately doubled in that decade, and those for scientific research more than tripled. By 1963 the expenditures for scientific research were roughly double those for universities and colleges. [9]

In 1967 and 1968, when the overall state budget went from just over 59 billion DM to about 59.5 billion, outlays for public, vocational, technical, and physical education increased from just under to just over 4.2 billion DM. Science, art, and culture (which category includes higher education) rose from over 2.7 billion DM in 1967 to nearly 3 billion in 1968. The sub-heading science, accounting for well over half of the outlays in this category, rose from just under 1.5 billion DM to almost 1.7 billion, the higher educational establishment as such receiving somewhat less than half, the rest going to academies and research institutes in both years. (See Appendix C, Table II.) [10] Since about 85% of students in higher education and over 95% of those in technical education receive scholarships, a significant portion of higher educational outlays, some 300 million DM per year in the mid-sixties, goes for this purpose. [11]

It has been noted before that the newest development in East German higher education has some of its roots in the "new economic system of planning and direction of the economy" of 1963. In 1961 the GDR economy underwent a crisis that resulted in effective abandonment of the seven-year plan then in effect. The economic changes that came about in the years following, at least until a new long-range plan was adopted in 1967, had several aims that fall outside the purview of this study. But the higher educational reform movement, set in motion in the mid-sixties and still in process of effectuation, was of a piece with the economic innovations in several ways. It would be inappropriate here to attempt any prognosis regarding the effectiveness of the economic changes in general, but some of the effects on higher education have become quite apparent. Both teaching and research are to be made more efficient by shortening periods of study, focusing attention on the most salient scientific problems, and relating all academic pursuits directly to economic needs. In part, then, higher education is so directly harnessed to the economy that investment in universities, colleges, and research institutes can be regarded as a more direct contribution to economic growth than it ever was before.[12] This may well produce benefits for the higher educational establishment, but only at the price of making its "output" in both graduates and research immediately applicable to the most pressing needs of the economy. Colleges and universities may well find themselves sharing, in a sense that is directly opposed to the traditional values of the university, in the reforms that apply to economic enterprises. They too will be subject to a new set of incentives, perhaps even premiums of a sort, but according to strictly economic criteria that will reward initiative and inventive academic procedures only so long as they have a direct payoff for the economy.

Combined with the reorganization of higher education and research, these modifications of academic purpose represent an investment bonus for the GDR economy, in the sense that they tap human resources, skills, and knowledge ordinarily available to society only in an indirect way, and by welding the teaching process, and therewith the academic pursuits of students as well as faculty, to the pressing concerns of the economy the whole academic enterprise becomes an auxiliary contributor to economic growth. That at least is the prospect, though it is too soon to assess the success of the reform. It should be noted that other societies -- not necessarily socialist ones -- have also placed public service and economic needs in the forefront of academic concern, and not to the ultimate detriment of either higher education or social requirements. But it is a daring move to hitch an entire educational system to an economy with structural difficulties and limited resources.

The outcome is perhaps in doubt, but meanwhile we have to take seriously a national effort that devotes some 6% of its national income to educational purposes, 50% more per student in 1963 than was invested by the Federal Republic of Germany. [13]

Chapter IV: Footnotes

1. Cited in *Handbuch der Deutschen Demokratischen Republik* (Berlin: Staatsverlag der DDR, n.d. [1963]), p. 687.
2. Peter Christian Ludz: *The German Democratic Republic from the Sixties to the Seventies* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Center for International Affairs, 1970), pp. 16-17.
3. *How Does the GDR Solve the Problems of Higher Education?* (Dresden: Verlag Zeit im Bild, n.d.), p. 16.
4. These and the following statistical data have been gathered from *ibid*, *Handbuch*, op.cit., *Polytechnical Education for All* (Dresden; Verlag Zeit im Bild, n.d.), and Baske and Engelbert (eds.): *Zwei Jahrzehnte Bildungspolitik in der Sowjetzone Deutschlands* (Heidelberg: Quelle & Meyer, 1966), Vol. 2, pp. 462-470. See also the Tables in Appendix C, adapted from the GDR Statistical Yearbooks. There are apparent discrepancies in some of the figures used hereinafter stemming from different ways of lumping things together in categories in successive issues of the Statistical Yearbooks and in some of the secondary sources relying on these data.
5. With the qualification that the figures include pedagogical students in colleges and institutes responsible to the Ministry of Education. The most recent edition of the Statistical Yearbook indicates that some of the figures cited in the *Handbuch*, op.cit.,

p. 687, on this subject are doubtful.

6. Polytechnical Education, op.cit., p. 30.

7. How Does the GDR, op. cit., p. 28.

8. For the information on East German budgetary procedures, see Hellmut Meier: Die Entwicklung des Haushaltswesens in der sowjetischen Besatzungszone Deutschlands (Berlin: Duncker & Humblot, 1960).

9. Baske and Engelbert, op. cit., p. 469.

10. This Table, based on the latest Statistical Yearbook, fails to accord with data given in Baske and Engelbert, op. cit., p. 469, thus illustrating the point made in Note 4, above.

11. Handbuch, op. cit., p. 522.

12. Resources available for investment pose a particular problem for the GDR, given its anxiety to overtake West Germany. Overall investment per capita in the GDR has remained quite consistently at half of total West German investment. (Michael von Berg, "Die Wirtschaft der DDR," Neue Zürcher Zeitung, nos. 224 and 225, 16 and 17 August 1968.) For fuller treatments of economic factors in the GDR, see Karl C. Thalheim: Die Wirtschaft der Sowjetzone in Krise und Umbau (Berlin: Duncker & Humblot, 1964); Joachim Nawrocki: Das geplante Wunder; Leben und Wirtschaften im anderen Deutschland (Hamburg: Christian Wegner Verlag, 1967); and Wolfgang F. Stolper: The Structure of the East German Economy (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard

University Press, 1960), especially Part VI.

13. UNESCO, Statistical Yearbook, 1964, pp. 313,319 (the UNESCO figure for the U.S. is 6.8% of national income); the comparison with West Germany is from Smith: Germany Behind the Wall, p. 173.

Chapter V

SCHOLARSHIP AND RESEARCH

One of the features of the liberal academic tradition is the essentially anarchic, i.e., unorganized, manner in which scholarly research is pursued in higher education. The research facilities of industry or of official agencies may be highly structured and directed to the solution of particular problems, either theoretical or applied. The sheer scale of some academic research, for example, in medicine and natural science, may also require structure and direction, but choices remain open both to institutions and individual participants. And in the humanities and social sciences teamwork is still a rarity, individual research efforts remaining the effective norm.

Were this the case in East Germany, it would be possible to ignore research in dealing with higher education, for the investigation of scholarship would tend to take the form of surveys of the content of scholarly work in particular fields of inquiry. Even studies of the organization of scientific activity would have some difficulty in comprehending the largely unplanned and uncoordinated contributions of higher educational faculties. In Soviet experience, too, and in the inception of East German scientific organization there has been reason to regard the research function as centering on the academies, not the teaching institutions, and to suppose that professors, except as they lend themselves to planned research programs in the academies or elsewhere, will simply go on pursuing their own research interests in an individualistic way. The Soviet Academy of Sciences, notwithstanding the postgraduate (what we would call graduate) training function emphasized from the late 1920's onward, presented such a discrete case that Alexander Vucinich could deal with it virtually without reference to Soviet universities. Whether in their research roles or in training aspirants, the academicians could be dealt with as if neither they nor any scholarly colleagues belonged to university faculties. And the Academy could be presented in that way precisely at a time when, as Vucinich notes, three trends -- "ideological purification, technological supremacy, and total planning" -- were promising a transformation of the institution.[1]

Although the East German academies -- newly founded ones as well as those inherited from the German tradition (see list below) -- resembled the Soviet scheme and suggested at the outset that the GDR would develop a functional division between teaching in colleges and universities and research in the academies, precisely the trends noted by Vucinich in the Soviet case have all but destroyed the distinction. New developments have of course cut both ways: by grafting an instructional function on research organizations (as happened in the Soviet Academy much earlier) and by mobilizing the research capacity of higher education in a coordinated way. As the documents of the latest higher educational reform indicate (see Appendix E), neat functional separations are no longer possible. And, it follows, as functions are mingled, institutional relationships multiply and intensify, a phenomenon that occurs not only within the GDR but also in its scientific and institutional ties with other countries of the socialist commonwealth. Indeed, practically everything that will be noted here about East German research and scientific organization has its counterpart in a network of exchange agreements (covering both personnel and scientific findings) with other members of the Council for Mutual Economic Aid.[2]

What is intended here, then, is a brief mapping of the research terrain in East Germany, since the colleges and universities are becoming an increasingly integral part of it. The list below indicates in general terms what the national research establishment looks like, though it does not include the research institutes and laboratories of the industrial enterprises. It does show the coverage of research services carried out directly under governmental auspices, and something of the research base represented by libraries and museums. What is not included anywhere here is a consideration of the content of scholarship or of the directions of interpretation in specific fields, a distinct and fascinating subject of inquiry but one that is not related directly to scholarly organization or national research emphases.[3]

Academies*

German Academy of Sciences (Deutsche Akademie der Wissenschaften), Berlin, founded 1700.

Principal subdivisions: Mathematics, Physics, and Technical Sciences
- Chemistry, Geology, and Biology
- Mining, Metallurgy, and Mining Geology
- Medicine
- Languages, Literature, and Arts
- Philosophy, History, and Political Science

German Academy of Agricultural Sciences (Deutsche Akademie der Landwirtschaftswissenschaften), Berlin, founded 1951.

German Academy of Research in Natural Science "Leopoldina" (Deutsche Akademie der Naturforscher Leopoldina), Halle, founded 1652.

Principal subdivisions: Medicine
- Natural Sciences

*Source: The World of Learning (London: Europa Publications Ltd., 1966-67), pp. 445-447.

Saxon Academy of Sciences (Sächsische Akademie der Wissenschaften), Leipzig, founded 1846.

Principal subdivisions: Mathematics and Natural Sciences
Philosophy and History

German Academy of Arts (Deutsche Akademie der Künste), Berlin, founded 1950.

German Academy of Architecture (Deutsche Bauakademie), Berlin, founded 1951

Learned Societies*

Berlin Society of Clinical Medicine (Berliner Gesellschaft für klinische Medizin), Berlin.

Society for Fuel Technology in the GDR (Brennstofftechnische Gesellschaft in der DDR), Berlin.

Chemical Society of the GDR (Chemische Gesellschaft in der DDR), Berlin.

German Society of Geological Sciences (Deutsche Gesellschaft für Geologische Wissenschaften), Berlin.

Geographical Society of the GDR (Geographische Gesellschaft der DDR), Leipzig.

Society of German Miners and Metallurgists (Gesellschaft Deutscher Berg- und Hüttenleute), Berlin.

Goethe Society (Goethe Gesellschaft), Weimar.

Institute for Literature "Johannes R. Becher," Leipzig.

Meteorological Society of the GDR (Meteorologische Gesellschaft in der DDR), Potsdam.

Physics Society of the GDR (Physikalische Gesellschaft in der DDR), Berlin.

German Society of Agricultural Sciences (Deutsche Agrarwissenschaftliche Gesellschaft), Berlin.

German Society for Entomology (Deutsche Entomologische Gesellschaft), Berlin.

*Source: The World of Learning (London: Europa Publications Ltd., 1966-67), p. 447; Vladimir Slamecka: Science in East Germany (New York/London: Columbia University Press, 1963), p. 119.

German Society for Measurement Technology (Deutsche Messtechnische Gesellschaft), Chamber of Technology, Berlin.

Society for Applied Mathematics and Mechanics (Gesellschaft für Angewandte Mathematik und Mechanik), Freiberg.

Research Institutes *

German Institute of Geography (Deutsches Institut für Länderkunde), Leipzig.

Central German Pedagogical Institute (Deutsches Pädagogisches Zentralinstitut), Berlin.

Meteorological Service of the GDR (Meteorologischer Dienst der Deutschen Demokratischen Republik), Potsdam.

Central State Statistical Office of the GDR Council of Ministers (Ministerrat der Deutschen Demokratischen Republik Staatliche Zentralverwaltung für Statistik) Berlin.

State Geological Commission (Staatliche Geologische Kommission), Berlin.

Central Institute for Nuclear Research (Zentralinstitut für Kernforschung), Dresden.

*Source: The World of Learning (London: Europa Publications Ltd., 1966-67), pp. 447-448. (This list does not include research institutes attached to academies or universities.)

Libraries and Archives*

Berlin City Library (Berliner Stadtbibliothek), Berlin, founded 1900, 800,000 vols.

Library of the Horticultural Faculty, Humboldt-University (Bibliothek der Landwirtschaftlich-Gärtnerischen Fakultät), Berlin, founded 1881, 60,000 vols.

Library of the Highest Court of the German Democratic Republic (Bibliothek des Obersten Gerichts der Deutschen Demokratischen Republik), Berlin, founded 1879, 300,000 vols.

German State Library (Deutsche Staatsbibliothek), Berlin, founded 1661, 2,700,000 vols.

Main Library of the German Academy of Sciences (Hauptbibliothek der Deutschen Akademie der Wissenschaften), Berlin, 142,000 vols.

Central Agricultural Library, German Academy of Agricultural Sciences (Landwirtschaftliche Zentralbibliothek), Berlin, founded 1962, 188,000 vols.

Central Pedagogical Library (Pädagogische Zentralbibliothek), Berlin, founded 1876, 330,000 vols.

University Library, Humboldt-University (Universitätsbibliothek), Berlin, founded 1831, 1,749,000 vols.

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*Source: The World of Learning (London: Europa Publications Ltd., 1966-67), pp. 448-449.

Central Library in the Ministerial Building (Zentralbibliothek im Hause der Ministerien), Berlin, 180,000 vols.

Central Library of the Berlin State Museum (Zentralbibliothek der Staatlichen Museen zu Berlin), Berlin, founded 1830, 97,000 vols.

University and Provincial Library of Saxony-Anhalt (Universitäts- und Landesbibliothek Sachsen- Anhalt), Dessau Branch, founded 1922, 105,000 vols.

Library of the College of Transport "Friedrich List" (Bibliothek der Hochschule für Verkehrswesen "Friedrich List"), Dresden, founded 1952, 115,000 vols.

Library of the Technical University (Bibliothek der Technischen Universität), Dresden, 198,000 vols.

Saxon Provincial Library (Sächsische Landesbibliothek), Dresden, founded 1556, 850,000 vols.

State Archive (Staatsarchiv), Dresden, founded 1834, 40,000 vols.

City and District Library (Stadt- und Bezirksbibliothek), Dresden, founded 1910, 318,000 vols.

City and District Library (Stadt- und Bezirksbibliothek), Erfurt, 131,000 vols.

Scientific Library (Wissenschaftliche Bibliothek), Erfurt, founded 1407, 280,000 vols.

Library of the Mining Academy (Bücherei der Bergakademie), Freiberg, founded 1765, 165,000 vols.

Provincial Library (Landesbibliothek), Gotha, founded 1647, 480,000 vols.

University Library (Universitätsbibliothek), Greifswald, founded 1604, 1,141,000 vols.

Library of the German Academy of Research in Natural Science (Bibliothek der Deutschen Akademie der Naturforscher), Halle, founded 1731, 169,000 vols.

Library of the German Oriental Society (Bibliothek der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft), Halle, founded 1845, 51,000 vols.

University and Provincial Library of Saxony-Anhalt (Universitäts- und Landesbibliothek Sachsen-Anhalt), Halle, founded 1696, 2,068,000 vols.

Library of the Technical College (Bibliothek der Technischen Hochschule), Ilmenau, founded 1953, 125,000 vols.

University Library (Universitätsbibliothek), Jena, founded 1558, 1,396,000 vols.

Library of the Technical College (Bibliothek der Technischen Hochschule), Karl-Marx-Stadt, founded 1836, 197,000 vols.

City and District Library (Stadt- und Bezirksbibliothek), Karl-Marx-Stadt, 235,000 vols.

Comenius Library, Central Pedagogical Library (Comenius-Bücherei, Pädagogische Zentralbibliothek), Leipzig, founded 1871, 240,000 vols.

German Library (Deutsche Bücherei), Leipzig, founded 1912, 3,200,000 vols.

Central Geographical Library, German Institute for Geography (Deutsches Institut für Länderkunde, Abteilung Geographische Zentral-bibliothek), Leipzig, founded 1896, 150,000 vols.

City Music Library (Musikbibliothek der Stadt Leipzig), Leipzig, founded 1894, 78,000 vols.

City and District Library (Stadt- und Bezirksbibliothek), Leipzig, founded 1677.

City Archive (Stadtarchiv), Leipzig, founded ca. 1100.

University Library, "Bibliotheca Albertina" (Universitätsbibliothek), Leipzig, founded 1543, 1,800,000 vols.

State Archive (Staatsarchiv), Magdeburg, 38,000 vols.

City and District Library (Stadt- und Bezirksbibliothek), Magdeburg, founded 1525, 115,000 vols.

Max-Reger Archive (Max-Reger-Archiv), Meiningen.

Library of the German Academy of Political and Legal Studies "Walter Ulbricht" (Bibliothek der Deutschen Akademie für Staats- und Rechtswissenschaft "Walter Ulbricht"), Potsdam, founded 1948, 320,000 vols.

Main Provincial Library of Brandenburg (Brandenburgisches Landeshauptarchiv), Potsdam, 25,000 vols.

Provincial and College Library of Brandenburg (Brandenburgische Landes- und Hochschulbibliothek), Potsdam, 250,000 vols.

German Central Archive in the German Democratic Republic (Deutsches Zentralarchiv in der Deutschen Demokratischen Republik), Potsdam, founded 1946.

City and District Library (Stadt- und Bezirksbibliothek) Potsdam, 85,000 vols.

University Library (Universitätsbibliothek), Rostock, founded 1569, 960,000 vols.

Mecklenburg Provincial Library (Mecklenburgische Landesbibliothek), Schwerin, founded 1779, 400,000 vols.

Thuringian Provincial Library (Thüringische Landesbibliothek), Weimar, founded 1691, 580,000 vols.

Main Provincial Archive of Thuringia (Thüringisches Landeshauptarchiv), Weimar, founded 1547.

Principal Museums*

State Museums (Staatliche Museen), Berlin.

Berlin City Museum for Cultural History (Kultur-historisches Museum der Stadt Berlin -- Märkisches Museum), Berlin.

Museum for German History (Museum für deutsche Geschichte), Berlin.

Museum for Natural History, Humboldt-University (Museum für Naturkunde der Humboldt-Universität), Berlin.

Provincial Museum for Prehistory (Landesmuseum für Vorgeschichte), Dresden.

Museum for Photography (Museum für Photographie), Dresden.

State Art Collections (Staatliche Kunstsammlungen), Dresden.

Baroque Museum (Barockmuseum), Dresden.

Schloss Weesenstein, Dresden.

Museum for Municipal History (Museum für Stadtgeschichte), Dresden.

Museum for Transport (Verkehrsmuseum), Dresden.

Museum for Local History (Heimatmuseum), Gotha.

Museum for Natural History (Naturkundemuseum), Gotha.

Schloss Museum (Schlossmuseum), Gotha.

Provincial Museum for Prehistory (Landesmuseum für Vor-Geschichte), Halle.

Goethe Room in Goethe House, Botanical Garden (Goethezimmer im Goethehaus des Botanischen Gartens), Jena.

Schillers Garden House and Museum (Schillers Gartenhaus mit Schillermuseum), Jena.

*Source: *The World of Learning*, pp. 450-451.

Municipal Museum (Stadtmuseum), Jena.

German Museum for Books and Printing (Deutsches Buch- und Schriftmuseum der Deutschen Bücherei), Leipzig.

German Institute for Geography (Deutsches Institut für Länderkunde), Leipzig.

Georgi-Dimitroff Museum, Leipzig.

Museum for the Fine Arts (Museum der bildenden Künste), Leipzig.

Museum for Ethnography (Museum für Völkerkunde), Leipzig.

Museum for the History of the City of Leipzig (Museum für Geschichte der Stadt Leipzig), Leipzig.

Municipal Museum for Industrial Art (Städtisches Museum des Kunsthandwerks), Leipzig.

Museum for Cultural History (Kulturhistorisches Museum), Magdeburg.

Museum for Archeology (Museum für Ur- und Frühgeschichte), Potsdam.

Museum for Archeology (Museum für Ur- und Frühgeschichte), Schwerin.

Museum for Cultural History (Kulturhistorisches Museum), Stralsund.

Archeological Museum of Thuringia (Museum für Ur- und Frühgeschichte Thuringens), Weimar.

National Research and Memorial Institutions of Classical German Literature (Nationale Forschungs- und Gedenkstätten der klassischen deutschen Literatur in Weimar), Weimar.

State Art Collections (Staatliche Kunstsammlungen), Weimar.

Museum for History of the Reformation, Lutherhalle (Lutherhalle, Reformationsgeschichtliches Museum), Wittenberg.

The three principal components, or capacities, of East German research are: the academies and their associated institutes, [4] the industrial laboratories and institutes working directly within units of the economy, and higher education. One might add, as parts of the essential apparatus, the state entities (such as the meteorological service and the statistical office) which serve scientific inquiry, the elaborate publishing efforts (that include not only book publication but also some well-supported and essential services like abstract publications [5]), and the network of research libraries that also comes under central planning and direction even though much of it is associated with particular institutions. [6] From the founding of the GDR onward, the relationships among these elements have deliberately been fostered until, in the reform movement that began around 1965, the observer can glimpse a rational (even if mistaken, a question I choose to leave open) and interlocking national research capability.

The development of the academies, with their three and possibly four discernible stages, affords one illustration of the process. When the old Prussian Academy of Sciences was reborn in 1946 as the German Academy of Sciences, it wore some of the aspects of its forerunner as a society and forum for professional academics of high reputation. But it also introduced a second stage of development with its founding statute providing for the maintenance of research institutes serving the "reconstruction of Germany's intellectual and material culture."[7] By 1949 the Academy was brought further into the process of social development as its institutes took on greater importance in governmental planning, and by 1957 various entities of the Academy were gathered into a research community dealing with natural science, technology, and medicine -- then and since the major emphasis in the Academy's work. In 1951 the Academy was placed directly under the Council of Ministers, and in 196[illegible] it was involved in the new economic system of planning and direction both with regard to its own work and in its growing role as overseer of scientific development in its fields of concern. Its budget grew from under 90 million DM in 1957 to more than twice that in 1963.[8] Starting in the early 1960's, the Academy began to develop a rather elaborate scheme of contracts with industrial units, the contracts providing the Academy with research funding and the other partners with the results of applied research valuable for industrial production. At the same time, although humanities and social sciences continued to figure in the work of the Academy, these fields remained smaller both in budgetary terms and in numbers of personnel involved; and they did not move as rapidly in the direction of a nationwide research network.

If the first stage was the rebirth of a professional academic society, some of the typical activities of which have been maintained, the second was the shift to the maintenance of research institutes. The third, accomplished in the late 1950's and the 1960's, was the development of a national coordination of research, the Academy figuring alongside universities and industrial undertakings in a planned division of labor and function designed to serve overall national priorities. The fourth, if it is not premature to identify it as a separate stage, manifests itself in the adoption of a style of research procedure, extending the already well-established one of group effort by concentrating personnel and financial resources on particularly vital clusters of research problems. As the documents of higher educational reform indicate, this procedure -- involving industry, higher education, and the academies alike -- has the twofold advantage of focusing on the most crucial research problems and of inculcating what are regarded as socialist habits of collective inquiry. (See Appendix E.)

Just as the other academies, smaller and more specialized as they are, tended to follow the pattern set by their elder brother, so too have the universities and colleges moved away from individual and toward coordinated research. Hand in hand has gone a tendency, more marked at the technical colleges than at the universities, to shift from basic to applied research. Like the Academy, the universities began to enter into contracts with industrial enterprises -- this already in the early 1950's. By the mid-1960's this source of research funding had reached 40% in the natural sciences and 60% in technology.[9] As the regime worked out its research priorities in connection with the new economic system, moreover, the shift continued in favor of production-oriented applied research, except in so far as enterprising academics were able to show a relationship between their projects of pure research and the large, complex issues bedevilling the regime; and, at an even sharper pace, in favor of scientific work over humanities and social sciences. The newest phase of reform of higher education has carried certain tendencies even further, especially the involvement of students in practical production problems as a form of academic training. It reached the point that Minister Giessmann could advocate the shortening of dissertations on grounds of efficiency and in favor of both cooperative thesis work and a more usable form of thesis research.[10] Another sign of the extent of the effort to link higher education with production requirements is the rather comprehensive relationship between the Zeiss plant in Jena and the university there, a connection that raises the specter of universities specializing in accordance with the needs of an array of industrial partners. The observation of one investigator that higher educational research institutes stand closer to industry than do the institutes of the Academy suggests that the prospect is not altogether farfetched, at least as long as the universities are being used to get around the regime's shortage of investment funding (see Chapter IV, above). A further implication of such a trend might possibly be to diminish the importance of those research units directly attached to national industrial branches or to particular plants. But the most agonizing development of all, and the one which might produce the greatest resistance to reform, might be a shift in decision-making authority whereby choices in the allocation of the relatively large research sums available would be made increasingly by industrial managers rather than by scientists themselves.[11]

This rather cursory review of the East German research picture has ignored many features of the subject -- some of the academies, most of the specifics of university research activity, and virtually all of the industrial research carried on in the enterprises themselves, -- in order to indicate some tendencies arising in the research dimension that threaten further to transform higher education. For the sake of balance, it is doubtless important to mention work that continues in the arts and humanities -- elaborate scholarly enterprises such as the full-scale dictionary of the German language and the completion of an index of Latin inscriptions, not to mention the contemplated Marx-Engels edition of 100 or so volumes.[12] It is also well to remember how concerned the SED regime is with its claim to the German past and its effort to join present East German reality to the mainstream of German culture. Such factors may well act as brakes on any thorough-going execution of a reform of higher education that might diminish the status of East German scholarship in its reputation outside the country. Yet the GDR has staked a great deal on a particular economic orientation, one of systematic coordination of its economy with that of the Soviet Union,[13] and any threat to that orientation which has served it reasonably well to date could quickly worsen the GDR's economic condition, leaving little hope for a long time to come that increased investment capabilities may relieve the pressure on higher education to be as economically useful as possible.

Chapter V: Footnotes

1. *The Soviet Academy of Sciences* (Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1956), especially p. 108; see also the fuller treatment by Loren R. Graham: *The Soviet Academy of Sciences and the Communist Party, 1927-1932* (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1967).
2. Some are noted in Appendix D, Chronology; more will be found in *SBZ von 1945-1954*, successor volumes, and in subsequent chronologies of *Deutschland Archiv*.
3. Some of the items in this already large body of literature are cited in Appendix A, Bibliography. For an introduction see M. G. Lange: *Wissenschaft im totalitären Staat* (Stuttgart and Düsseldorf: Ring Verlag, 1955) and some of the contributions in Peter Christian Ludz (ed.): *Studien und Materialien zur Soziologie der DDR* (Cologne/Opladen: Westdeutscher Verlag, 1964), especially Part VI.
4. For a detailed but now somewhat dated survey of the Academies, restricted unfortunately and somewhat artificially to the natural sciences, see Vladimir Slamecka: *Science in East Germany* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1963).
5. Listed in *ibid*, pp. 57-63.

6. Martin Thilo: *Das Bibliothekswesen in der Sowjetischen Besatzungszone Deutschlands* (Bonn: Deutscher Bundes-Verlag, 1965), Part A; see also the instructive anecdotes in Jean Edward Smith: *Germany Beyond the Wall* (Boston: Little, Brown and Co., 1969), pp. 176-178.

7. Cited in Renate Rausch, "Förderung und Organisation der Forschung in der DDR," in Ludz (ed.): *Studien* etc., p. 264.

8. *Handbuch der Deutschen Demokratischen Republik* (Berlin: Staatsverlag der DDR, 1963), p. 692.

9. Rausch, op. cit., p. 267.

10. *Die Aufgaben der Universitäten und Hochschulen im einheitlichen Bildungssystem der sozialistischen Gesellschaft* (Berlin: Staatsverlag der DDR, 1967), pp. 63-64. It should not, however, be supposed that Giessmann's remarks are irrelevant for East Germany or elsewhere; he was merely more outspoken than most in facing the ritual aspects of much academic work and declaring them unacceptable in an economy of scarcity.

11. Rausch, op. cit., p. 280.

12. *Handbuch*, op. cit., p. 699.

13. Peter Christian Ludz: *The German Democratic Republic from the Sixties to the Seventies* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard Center for International Affairs, 1970), pp. 67-69.

Chapter VI

CONCLUSION: EDUCATION UNDER COMMUNISM

If education is taken to refer to that process whereby a society fits its youth for adulthood, then the educational process is a universal feature of human societies. Differences may be very great as to the social location of the educational function. Moreover, societies differ markedly as to the degree of explicitness with which education is treated. But students of known societies -- primitive or advanced, historical or contemporary -- can generally discover, even when members of a given society cannot themselves identify, what priorities are applied to the transition from infancy to adulthood and what combination of agents performs the educational function.

Developed or developing societies are generally united, if in few other ways, by the explicit attention they devote to education as a primary means of molding human material to the preservation of valued conventions and attitudes or to the furtherance of certain directions of change that enjoy official sanction. At this level of generalization, particular values and political forms are irrelevant. One can presumably gauge the success with which a given society carries out the educational task without reference to ideology or technique, provided only that one knows what the society in question seeks to achieve.

Much of the confusion that has figured in assessments of educational performance in socialist countries can be traced to a failure to distinguish between success in meeting a socialist society's own requirements and success in satisfying other norms, values which may be taken to be universal but which are either extrinsic to the particular society or masked for a longer or shorter time by the overriding official priorities of those agencies or individuals responsible for policy. Thus, when it is said, as it often has been, that Soviet or Chinese or East German education fails to satisfy longings for individual autonomy and freedom of choice, the judgment presupposes at least one of three assumptions: either that the particular value is indeed universal and should take precedence over any conceivable goals of a given regime; or that the value, freedom of choice, is in fact held by substantial numbers of the members of that society who are unable, because of the regime's repressive efficiency, to actuate the value in the face of official policy; or that a political persuasion, temporarily or permanently in control, is necessarily wrong in supposing that even weighty human values must at times be set aside for the sake of radical or revolutionary policies required to work fundamental transformations in the society and its members.

One or all of these assumptions may be valid, and if so they permit a certain kind of verdict on East German educational practice, or on that of any other society striving to achieve socialism. But even if they are all true, they do not invalidate the observation, made by Jean Edward Smith and David Childs among others, [1] that

East German education is actually working rather well in its own terms. Such an assessment can be challenged, but not by invoking values placed in abeyance by official policies of the moment (and still less by suggesting that the observer is himself insufficiently devoted to freedom of a particular kind). It may be a matter of taste which variety of judgment is more pertinent. But there is an undeniable weakness in verdicts that do no more than condemn educational policies or practices for failing to live up to norms applied from outside: that form of judgment leaves no room for discrimination among regimes that seem repressive or for distinctions as to success in fulfilling different, and sometimes partially conflicting, priorities of the regime in question. Thus, returning to a point I made in the Introduction, a merely condemnatory verdict misses the opportunity to utilize the relatively visible and public features of social policy and practice, in this case the ones associated with higher education, to obtain greater insight into the society under examination. Therefore, while I am perfectly willing to declare my adherence to such values as intellectual freedom and academic autonomy, I am concerned with them in this context only so far as they actually figure in the evolution of East German higher education from 1945 to 1970. In fact of course they do. But they have to be viewed in the perspective of the overall effort to reconstruct and transform a deeply rooted university tradition.

The relevance of Karl Marx's teachings to the subject at hand is at least arguable. The frequency with which he is invoked in the GDR [2] or elsewhere in Eastern Europe may indicate only a ritualistic seeking for legitimacy. Certainly Marxism as originally formulated underwent powerful modification in the decades between his death and the end of World War II. Above all, of course, the Russian revolutionary experience intervened, occasioning the irony that Marx, so much a product of the German intellectual tradition, was received back into postwar Germany in a Russian version. And in any case, Marx had spoken little of education *per se* [3] and even less of the precise configurations of postrevolutionary society.

Yet there are reasons for mentioning some of Marx's basic conceptions here. One is quasi-conjectural in nature: precisely because of Marx's accessibility to East German readers and because we have seen signs elsewhere within the socialist commonwealth that a fresh reading of Marx can activate a critical stance toward regimes ostensibly engaged in effectuating the Marxian program, it is possible to speculate that Marx's own aspirations for a postrevolutionary society might serve more readily as a source of alternatives than could any less well accepted body of social theory. The other reason, perhaps no less conjectural, is the possibility that the program known as Marxism-Leninism is yet to be taken seriously. This could mean either that the socialist leadership, in East Germany or elsewhere, imposes substantial social and human costs at present in order to clear the way for a genuinely Marxian outcome, for a social transformation that would be impossible from any less radical point of departure; or, what seems more plausible to me, that present policies and practices may have outcomes of value and importance which the present leadership does not foresee or consciously attempt to effectuate.[4] But even if these possibilities be rejected as utopian or too remote to enter into present calculations, there remains some point in noting the ideological lineage that starts with Marx and proceeds through Lenin, if only because they set the terms within which the East German regime thinks it is operating.

The tenets of original Marxism that have greatest bearing on higher education under a socialist regime revolve around Marx's conception of man. The fundamental task of a socialist regime, one that is supposedly on its way -- as the Soviet and emulative systems proclaim themselves to be -- toward realization of a classless society, is to remove the conditions that produce alienation of human beings from their own creations. Work is man's quintessentially creative activity in the Marxian scheme, and the problem is to restore to man the fruits of his own activity. Although Marx was neither specific nor detailed in his presentation of the characteristics of a postrevolutionary society, it is nonetheless clear that he expected such societies to develop, however gradually, the conditions that would free men to fulfill themselves. And he added to this revolutionary prescription an inherited educational concept (Bildungsideal) of decidedly classical nature. Engaged voluntarily and creatively in what Marx thought of as work, men would on their own initiative, but also with the encouragement of society, develop the many facets of their nature and, in doing this, perform both the socially necessary kinds of work and the culturally enriching kinds demanded by his own creative nature.

Having chosen the proletariat as revolutionary agent, Marx was conscious of the need to raise the cultural level of the working class so that, in the postrevolutionary process of liquidating class distinctions, proletarians would become heirs to all of mankind's achievements and would thus be capable of realizing their multiple potentialities. That this process was not to wait upon the revolution is shown by the tremendous volume of activity, sometimes overlooked in the history of European social democracy, that Marxist parties initiated to relieve workers of the disabilities they suffered by exclusion from the higher forms of educational development in bourgeois societies. Although this is not the place for a fuller explication of Marx's notions about education, it should at least be clear that his utopian vision anticipated neither the acceptance of any cultural crudity associated with working class mores because of their exploited status nor any separation between performance of the manual labor usually associated with the proletariat and engagement in the more elevated pursuits reserved by bourgeois and precursor societies for the privileged orders. Thus, the idea of polytechnical education, enshrined in Soviet practice with the educational reform of 1958 and emulated by other socialist countries thereafter, can with much justification be attributed to Marx. The attempt to join the educational process with productive labor, a dominant feature of educational reform in the GDR since 1959, is to be seen at least in part as movement toward Marx's goal of dissociating types of work from their class connotations.[5]

The other major element in accounting for current emphasis in the GDR and elsewhere on polytechnical education was contributed rather more by Lenin than by Marx. This has less to do with Lenin's actual conception of education than it has with the fact that Lenin succeeded in making a revolution in a relatively backward society. In the formulations that best express Marx's own expectations, it is evident that he thought the bourgeoisie and the capitalist system would, in the process of exhausting their progressive capabilities, bring their societies to a high state of industrial and technological development. Also implicit in this view was the assumption of a high cultural and educational level in the societies that would first ripen to a revolutionary stage.[6] In confounding these expectations Lenin's success in Russia had the effect of deferring to the postrevolutionary phase the interconnected problems of economic, social, and cultural development. The revolutionary regime thereby acquired tasks that indefinitely postponed the advance toward human emancipation and a classless society. Educational practices had to be devised that would serve several aims at once. Essentially, they had to serve as functional equivalents of bourgeois education in advanced societies, yet also incorporate and reflect enough revolutionary ideology as to seem to represent an advance toward the objectives of communism.

Those countries swept into the Soviet orbit in the wake of World War II can be called revolutionary only by a somewhat perverse definition. But by reason of their own relative backwardness in economic terms, coupled with the wartime devastation that largely negated the edge that East Germany, for example, might otherwise have enjoyed in an East European context, the task of building socialism was not unlike that which confronted the Bolsheviks after 1917.[7] Economic development, social transformation, and cultural progress were all on the agenda of every socialist regime in the postwar period. And measures adopted in the educational realm were recognizably crucial to any movement toward realization of these larger objectives.

As soon as the SED was permitted and helped by the Soviet occupation administration to establish a government that could, in the name of the GDR, participate as a sovereign partner in the socialist commonwealth, the East German party and government were confronted, like their neighbors, with the positive side of building socialism. At this point, the negative aims of the occupation period gave way increasingly to a constructive educational program. As this suggests, then, it would not suffice merely to list the educational goals of the GDR as if they were concurrent and of equal weight. For there is a shift not only in the supplanting of negative aims through more constructive measures, but also, with increasing industrial development and sophistication in economic planning, from lower to higher levels of education. Furthermore, educational goals in the GDR have an ascending character which tends to explain the diminishing level of success that is observable as one proceeds from the simpler to the more ambitious objectives.

During the years of Soviet occupation the primary educational goal was prophylactic in nature. Particular attention was paid at all educational levels to the removal of personnel who might perpetuate the values of the defeated regime. As a program of denazification, it was of course a policy common to the occupation powers throughout Germany. One special feature of this kind of prophylaxis in East Germany was the relative lack of concern for legal niceties: less concerned with abstract justice, the Soviet occupation was accordingly less prone to fall into errors resulting from inadequate understanding of the defeated Nazi regime, and the ensuing denazification program became a rough-and-ready approximation of justice which, whatever else it did, effectively cleared the way for the first stage of educational reform. The other special feature, perhaps of greater importance in the long run, was the Soviet preference for "antifascist" over "antinazi" as a slogan for popular mobilization and educational indoctrination. This more capacious category had room for any enemy of socialism and permitted the first positive note to be struck in the form of those educational ideas, concerning content as well as form, which would be encouraged to prosper in the Soviet Zone of Occupation. The slogan of antifascism prevailed as a set of parameters regulating the material taught in school and university, in effect ruling out those values and attitudes identified with the Prussian tradition as well as those propagated by the Hitler regime, but without going so far -- so long as the Soviet policymakers were keeping their options open for further fields of influence to the west -- as to impose a positive program of socialist teaching.

But as the prophylactic goals were satisfied, a second set of aims assumed growing prominence. Starting as indoctrination favorable to the Soviet Union, the ideological program that superceded the merely negative postwar efforts to sanitize the educational establishment became a constant feature of East German education in the 1950s and has remained a major emphasis ever since. The ideological training that was built into East German education has altered in its specifics as the country moved toward full membership in the socialist commonwealth, but numerous characteristics that appeared early have survived to the present -- from mandatory Russian instruction to elaborate efforts in behalf of a Marxist-Leninist version of social science. Continued evidence of dissatisfaction in official circles suggests that this more positive program has not enjoyed the same success as did the more modest one of rooting out the intransigent enemies of a socialist program. But of course the problem of ideological persuasion has an easier and a more difficult side: it is comparatively easy to silence the outright opponents of a socialist party in power but, as the Soviet example indicates, much more difficult to secure the enthusiastic adherence of the bulk of a population. Erection of the wall in 1961 removed the last readily available means of registering outright opposition to the regime on a significant scale, thereby persuading the citizenry that some form of accommodation to official teachings would be required. But it could not achieve the positive goal of winning acceptance for Marxism-Leninism, and that accounts in large part for the continued voicing of official dissatisfaction with the ideological aspects of East German education.

As the antifascist campaign focused first on the level of education involving the most numerous body of citizens, so too has ideological training sought to influence children as early in life as possible. The bulk of official efforts in behalf of Marxist-Leninist teachings are accordingly still devoted to lower levels of education. Yet with the advance of socialist construction and the increasingly sophisticated needs of the economy, ideological training has been pursued with, if anything, greater intensity at higher educational levels. It is noticeable, for example, that SED and FDJ units at institutions of higher education redouble their ideological efforts in times when a major change is occurring, as it has been lately in the course of the reform of higher education. By the same token, such changes are often accompanied by more stringent criteria of political and ideological reliability, rewards being reserved for faculty and students who can demonstrate dedication to the direction in which the SED and the government are trying to move East German society. The concern for ideological purity thus remains pervasive as an educational objective, bearing with increasing intensity upon higher education as the society develops industrially, but showing rather limited success on the positive side where intellectual conversion is the desideratum. A fair measure of success has been recorded, on the other hand, in the respect that East German society has been largely accepted as a permanent entity by its own citizens, and there is little reason to suppose that East Germans wish to change the system in any fundamental way. Official policy has mixed patriotic teachings very liberally with the ideological component of education, obviously seeking to maximize the advantages of citizen identification with the GDR, even if that falls short in most cases of full ideological persuasion. And, given the fact that higher education is a principal route to social and economic advancement, the system must be credited with securing at least the complicity of many or most East Germans in the effort to make that socialist society a viable entity.

That measure of success is still a far cry from another ideological objective, traceable like the others via Lenin back to Marx but so much more ambitious as to warrant speaking of a qualitatively different ideological plane. Presupposing more success than any regime has yet had in propagating Marxist-Leninist doctrine, this objective is sometimes spoken of as the forging of a new socialist morality or as the creation of a new man (Soviet or other). It relates to the original Marxist conception that man would be fundamentally changed when fully emancipated, freed from class struggle and attendant exploitation. Conventional realism would doubtless dictate that such utopian goals wait upon the attainment of their preconditions, but it is characteristic of the dialectical approach of Marxism that ultimate aims be kept in the forefront of attention even as a regime struggles to realize the proximate goals that are their preconditions. It should therefore occasion no surprise that the GDR and its educational system have given some attention consistently to the millennial refashioning of the human personality. As in the Soviet Union, East German striving for economic efficiency and, eventually, conditions of abundance, is recognized as a sort of minimal program that is prerequisite to the transformation of the human being, but, however absorbing and challenging the minimal objective may be, the long-range aim has also to be kept in mind and indeed actuated so far as possible, without waiting for preconditions to be fully realized. The shift that is represented here is one from an intellectual acceptance of official ideology to an internalization of new socialist norms, the forging of a new ethic of cooperation, a state that Marx would have spoken of as the overcoming of the alienation rooted in bourgeois capitalist competition.

The rather tedious rhetoric that constantly calls attention to these goals tends to suggest an empty moralizing, a hortatory smokescreen indicating chiefly the interests of the state and party in an obedient and productive citizenry. It may then be instructive to consider the report of Marion Gräfin Dönhoff, political editor of the West German Die Zeit, after a visit to the GDR. Noting the common western notion that communists lack any morality and only use the rhetoric of progress to mask their determination to protect their own status as rulers, she remarks: "The difficulty lies in the fact that the communists are completely convinced of the moral rectitude of their conduct, that they are able to inspire their followers to devotion and self-sacrifice, and that in many ways idealism is much greater over there than it is on our side. They really believe that one can change the world and free mankind from the temptation of evil." She illustrates from a conversation in an East German hotel when she let fall the question, directed to the young history dozent who was their escort, "What do you really think is the meaning of life?" To which he replied unhesitatingly, "The meaning of our life lies in achievement for society." When the West German journalist insisted that she wanted to know his personal sense of life's purpose, he repeated himself: "Yes, I mean by helping in the attempt to eliminate need, poverty, and exploitation."[8]

One could multiply such examples, but they would only show that a segment of East German society has accepted official doctrine, not that the educational system has had any particular success in winning the acceptance. If there is a totalitarian thrust in East German political life, it consists in the effort to secure willing and automatic acceptance by the mass of the population of the doctrines and norms that are officially endorsed. And if the ruling party seeks, as its rhetoric suggests that it does, to propagate a socialist ethic leading to some kind of _homus novo_, then the educational system is the most readily available instrument. Yet there is little evidence to show that the educational system is doing more than to underscore the lesson plain to all since the erection of the wall, namely that East Germans must accommodate to the prospect of living under a regime committed to social change of a particular kind. That East Germans have understood this lesson seems not to be in doubt; nor is there much doubt that the thoroughgoing internalization of officially sanctioned doctrine goes far beyond the inner circle of the SED. But East Germany has provided no more convincing proof than did the Hitler regime or than Soviet Russia has that the minds of men are so malleable as to create the preconditions for a massive and willing refashioning of human values according to a predetermined social theory. East German higher education produces sufficient acquaintance with Marxism-Leninism that much of public discourse can be made to conform to its categories and terminology; and it produces enough prudential calculation that prescribed routes of social and economic advancement will be chosen without visible coercion. But it does not seem to be tending toward the Orwellian vision.

The question has been examined to some degree by Arthur Hanhardt, Jr., who sought to ascertain what effectiveness the regime's policies have had in inculcating a so-called "socialist personality." [9] "A socialist personality," according to Hanhardt, "is one that follows the precepts of socialist morality and is not only willing to learn to the limits of its capabilities, but will put its knowledge and talents to full use in the cause of socialist society. The socialist personality, moreover, engages in cooperative behavior within its collective in an effort to increase productivity and to solve personal and social problems. The interests of the socialist personality and the socialist state are identical." [10] While it would be perilous to suppose that this phenomenon has not occurred in the GDR, or that it has not sometimes been successfully implanted by the educational system, it is in practice almost impossible to know whether a given instance is the result of indoctrination or of prudence, whether it represents conviction or an accommodation. Now, so long as East Germans who have fled to the Federal Republic continue to exhibit attitudes implanted in the GDR since 1945, [11] it would be perverse to suggest that the multiform educational measures taken in the GDR have had no effect. But Hanhardt, who has examined a variety of East German empirical studies of attitudes, presents a mixed picture, one in which some official measures seem to have resulted in negative returns. [12] The most one can say at this stage is that pride in East German citizenship has become discernible, a result -- in my view -- more of accommodation to necessity than of rejoicing in it, as official doctrine would have citizens do. A related development, still clearer in its supporting evidence, yet not in conflict with the signs of negative returns from official indoctrination, is the "career society" described by Ludz [13] and characterized by Hanhardt in this way: "The knowledge that there are predictable criteria for rewards and promotions gives individuals the personal security needed to bolster confidence in the system." [14]

This leads directly to the range of official purpose in the management of higher education in which the SED regime has recorded its most notable successes. It does not require a final judgment on the effectiveness of the most recent reform of higher education to recognize that East German higher education has already been matched up skillfully, both in its substantive emphases and in its revised structure, with the economy and its developmental imperatives. Performance may be spotty or downright bad in some instances, but the overall system has been designed with a high degree of rationality and with a sense for the interlocking devices required. Such root-and-branch planning and structural inventiveness are unknown in western Europe or North America and, indeed, impossible without a high degree of central authority. The fact that one might regard such centralized direction as bad does not detract from the East German accomplishment. The regime set out to eliminate educational personnel tainted with Nazi connections and did so; it inaugurated a crash program of teacher training to fill the gap and established new routes to university education as part of its remodeling of traditional higher education. It built up a variety of institutional patterns, notably in its expansion of college facilities in the fifties, which suited the needs of the economy as well as the desire to modify the traditional university scheme. It gave colleges and universities responsibilities, especially for recruitment of social groups hitherto disadvantaged and for continuing education, that were anchored in the system, carried out effectively, and preserved as milestones of educational reform. While official circles were imposing a uniform content -- at least in regard to crucial scientific, technical, and social scientific doctrines -- they were also creating an institutional diversity of function that seems now to be fully established as a vehicle for the newest set of changes. Above all, by its manipulation of rewards and with very limited reliance on coercion, the regime has married higher education to the economy. The first emphasis, after the initial sanitizing had been carried out, was on training the kinds of personnel most needed to effectuate the economic plans. The second step, later in its inception but like the first still in progress, was to overcome the conventional divisions between higher education and technical training on the one hand, and between higher education and scientific research on the other, so that the resources of universities and colleges could be channeled directly into the economy. The hallmarks of the second step, as they culminated in the third higher educational reform, were identified as the concentration of research resources on major points of emphasis in their application to the economy, the raising of educational efficiency in training of students and in research pursuits, the permeation of all of higher education and research by the tenets of Marxist-Leninist scientific organization, and the consistent emphasis of the scientific and technological subjects that promised economic viability. Long-range planning and teamwork were accompanying procedural trademarks.

It is still conceivable that some of the traditional features of university life will persist in the face of this drive for reform. It is certainly possible, if not probable, that the glorification of the "scientific-technological revolution" may prove to have been more an article of faith than a way out of real economic impasses. It is far from improbable that East Germany will experience, as the Soviet Union has, the dilemma that increasingly sophisticated scientific pursuits raise other, ancillary questions that cast doubt on supposedly immutable doctrinal postulates. In short, policy may prove to have been misguided. Yet the very fact that East Germany has created an institutional network in higher education and research that is diversified, functionally related to existing social priorities, and adequate to the foreseeable needs of a population primed to expect an open route to social advancement, provided only that ideological postulates are observed, makes it mandatory that we take notice of this system and learn from some of its recognitions.

It has been observed before that some educational problems persist across cultural and ideological lines.[15] We may not want to invoke fear as a means of restraining student dissent, but the East Germans have made considerable, and not altogether futile, efforts to mobilize young people for positive social aims. And if prudence is more vital than socialist consciousness in keeping those aims in the forefront of attention, that fact does not invalidate the attempt. East Germany has recognized, to a greater extent than has either West Germany or the United States, that education and training are lifelong pursuits, not circumscribed spans of academic life, and their educational institutions are set up to deal with this important matter of continuing adult education. If we wish to deplore the permeation of academic life in the GDR by practical or ideological criteria, we have also to be aware how ideologically-conditioned and practice-oriented our own system is, and perhaps give East Germany credit for its explicit stressing of social and economic goals that are not a hidden element but rather a consciously planned one of the national system of higher education.

Chapter VI: Footnotes

1. Smith: *Germany Beyond the Wall*, Chapter 8; and Childs: *East Germany*, Chapter 8. Peter C. Ludz has criticized both presentations as being somewhat overly optimistic in "Discovery and 'Recognition' of East Germany: Recent Literature on the GDR," *Comparative Politics*, Vol. II, no. 4, pp. 681-695. Arthur Hanhardt (*The German Democratic Republic*, p. 103) presents what I regard as a balanced estimate:

> The educational system of the G.D.R. has been used to modify the East German class structure, first by denying education to the children of the middle and upper classes following the war and then by making opportunities available on the broadest base. This is one of the changes in the G.D.R. that has had far-reaching influence and that has supported Ralf Dahrendorf's thesis that the East German state is the "first modern society on German soil."

(The reference is to Dahrendorf's *Gesellschaft und Demokratie in Deutschland*, p. 453.) My intent in this chapter is to offer a more differentiated view that, while taking account of lapses in performance as well as structural defects, recognizes the fundamental changes wrought by official policy on higher education and stresses the high priority enjoyed by education in the GDR.

2. See J. Wolfgang Görlich: *Geist und Macht in der DDR* (Olten und Freiburg: Walter-Verlag, 1968) for an extensive account of the role of ideology in the GDR. For further bibliographical information, see Hellmuth G. Bütow: *Die Entwicklung des dialektischen und historischen Materialismus in der Sowjetzone* (Wiesbaden: Otto Harrassowitz, 1960-1963) in three parts which form Heft 4 of the "Bibliographische Mitteilungen des Osteuropa-Instituts an der Freien Universität Berlin."

3. Cf. P. N. Grusdew (comp.): *Marx/Engels Über Erziehung und Bildung* (Berlin: Volk und Wissen Volkseigener Verlag, 1968), an East German translation of a Russian work that appeared in 1957; also Horst E. Wittig: *Die Marxsche Bildungskonzeption und die Sowjetpädagogik* (Bad Harzburg: Verlag für Wissenschaft, Wirtschaft und Technik, 1964).

4. This consideration is akin to the analysis worked out on a large historical canvas by Barrington Moore, Jr.: *Social Origins of Dictatorship and Democracy* (Boston: Beacon Press, 1966).

5. The literature on these matters is of course almost limitless, and the treatment here too brief to take account of many controversial items of interpretation. But since the central issue here is

the relationship among work, education, and culture as Marx viewed it, I should at least refer the reader to Ernst Fischer's admirable summary in *The Necessity for Art, A Marxist Approach* (Baltimore: Penguin Books, 1963).

6. Marx could of course conceive of revolutionary developments under more primitive conditions, possibilities that are discussed most perhaps in his correspondence with Russian populists, but western bourgeois capitalism remained the central element in his expectation of revolution.

7. The analogy could doubtless be pushed too far, but the East German regime, recognizing its desperate need for trained manpower both technical and professional, pursued a course for many years that resembled the use Lenin and Trotsky had made of former Tsarist bureaucrats and military officers.

8. Marion Gräfin Dönhoff, Rudolf Walter Leonhardt, and Theo Sommer: *Reise in ein Fernes Land* (Hamburg: Nannen-Verlag, 1964), pp. 45-46.

9. "The Political System of the German Democratic Republic: Totalitarian, Authoritarian or What?", a paper prepared for the annual meeting of the Western Political Science Association in April 1971.

10. Ibid, p. 9.

11. The subject of a study by Barbara Grunert-Bronnen: *Ich bin Bürger der DDR und lebe in der Bundes-*

republik (Munich: Piper Verlag, 1970).

12. Hanhardt paper, especially p. 16.

13. Peter Christian Ludz: The German Democratic Republic from the Sixties to the Seventies, p. 54; a concept that embodies what Ludz regards as a tendency toward socio-economic stability that contrasts with the instability that he finds characteristic of the political system. Conceding that the political atmosphere has changed dramatically since 1961 and 1962, Ludz does not believe that either national consciousness nor a socialist style of life has made much headway as yet in the GDR.

14. Hanhardt paper, p. 22.

15. See, e.g., Joseph Katz, "Common Ground between Communist and Western Education," in Edmund J. King (ed.): Communist Education (Indianapolis/New York: Bobbs-Merrill, n.d.), pp. 284-304.

APPENDICES

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BIBLIOGRAPHY

Scope and coverage of this bibliography have been governed quite strictly by the subject of the study. Although it has been necessary to consult general works on education and on wider aspects of East German life, these are not included in the following list. Excepting some general studies of contemporary East Germany containing significant treatments of its higher educational system and bibliographical or other reference sources, each of which occupies a short section at the beginning of the bibliography, those general works that have been employed are cited only in the footnotes.

The bibliography is thus restricted to citations bearing quite directly on East German higher education. I have included all of the significant works that came to my attention, even if they were not accessible to me at the time of writing, so as to provide a substantial working bibliography of the subject, though of course by no means an exhaustive one.

The more important periodicals and collective works are cited as such, but the pertinent articles and chapters from them are also cited individually. I have utilized annotations sparingly to explain or call attention to matters that would not be evident from the title alone.

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Appendix B

ACADEMIC CREDENTIALS

East German students who are eligible in their own country for university admission or for technical training at a higher educational level have, generally speaking, completed the ten-year general and polytechnical program and have spent an additional three or more years of schooling, and have taken a standard examination, to obtain the appropriate certificate of maturity (either *Abiturzeugnis* or *Reifezeugnis*). Such secondary schooling may take several forms or combinations of forms, the usual one being an eleventh and twelfth year of general and polytechnical education plus a year of work in agriculture or industry. Other routes lead to a special certificate (*Sonderabiturzeugnis* or *Sonderreifezeugnis*); these programs are as follows:

1) Four years of part-time schooling at an extended general education polytechnical secondary school at the place of employment (*Betriebsoberschule* or *Betriebsakademie*) or at a *Volkshochschule* (adult education institute);
2) One to 3 years of college-preparatory schooling at special college or university departments, (*Vorstudienabteilung*, *Arbeiter - und Bauernfakultat*); and

3) Other special part-time college-preparatory courses, concomitant with 2 to 3 years of vocational, industrial, or agricultural apprentice training (*Klassen für Berufsausbildung mit Abitur* or *Abiturklassen der Betriebsberufschulen*).

A student holding such a certificate may be expected to have the basic educational equipment for freshman-level work at a U.S. institution of higher education (and may also, depending on his field of study, be qualified for advanced standing), provided that he also possesses proficiency in English, that his preparation includes the prerequisites for a particular course of study, and that his grades indicate aptitude for his academic goals. In some subjects he may well be more advanced than his American contemporary. Although civic training and ideological indoctrination take up a substantial portion of elementary and secondary education in the East German school system, an able student nevertheless emerges with sound preparation in the basic educational subjects and should be able to hold his own with American high school graduates. But graduates from vocational type secondary level programs should be considered for U.S. college admission only if the U.S. institution admits graduates from U.S. vocational secondary programs. Such candidates would include students who have completed secondary technical schools or institutes terminating in a diploma or maturity certificate (Fachschul Diplom; Reifezeugnis der Fachschule; Ingenieurschule).

Students who have completed the ten-year program of general and polytechnical education but have not gone on to obtain the certificate for the additional years will presumably have to be examined more carefully. Testing may be necessary to establish whether or not they need compensatory work to equip them for the beginning collegiate level.

East German students who have completed some higher educational work in their home country may, after meeting normal standards for admission to an American college or university, also qualify for advanced standing. The amount of credit granted for previous study will necessarily depend on the American institution's particular requirements, the type and amount of study completed in an East German institution, and the program of study to be pursued in the United States. Since course content varies widely between East German and American institutions, only a flexible approach to recognition of prior study will avoid the demoralizing imposition of redundant compensatory courses and the equally demoralizing admission to levels of work for which a student may be insufficiently prepared. It is probable, for example, that East German educational offerings in scientific and technical subjects will prove to have been roughly equivalent to corresponding offerings in U.S. institutions. In the social sciences and history, on the other hand, preparation may prove to have been quite different, not so much because the courses in question are necessarily less advanced but because the content and emphases are so different. Thus, it is entirely possible that an East German student might qualify for advanced standing in some subjects, yet require compensatory work in others. Depending on the reliability of placement procedures at the receiving institution, a probationary period may be necessary to ascertain precisely what standing a given student should be accorded.

The West German Conference of Rectors recognizes certain East German institutions as full-fledged universities by standards prevailing throughout Europe: the Humboldt University in Berlin, Karl Marx University in Leipzig, Martin Luther University in Halle-Wittenberg, Friedrich Schiller University in Jena, the University of Rostock, Ernst Moritz Arndt University in Greifswald, the Technische Hochschule in Dresden, and the Bergakademie in Freiberg. Work completed at these institutions, excepting that which is obviously conditioned by ideological considerations, may be presumed to meet higher educational standards. Study at other institutions, and particularly at teacher training institutions, should be examined more critically.

Successful completion of higher educational programs and state or diploma examinations results in conferral of state diplomas such as : diplomaed historian (Diplom-Historiker), diplomaed engineer (Diplom-Ingenieur), diplomaed physicist (Diplom-Physiker), teacher for the general polytechnical secondary school (Lehrer für die allgemeinbildende polytechnische Oberschule), or pharmacist (Apotheker).

Holders of such diplomas have completed at least 4 years of higher education, and may be considered as having achieved roughly the equivalent of an undergraduate degree in their field of specialization. Applicants for U.S. college entrance who have partially completed an undergraduate program at a higher educational institution in the Soviet Zone of Germany may be given advanced standing for the studies completed on a course by course basis, depending on how the subjects fit into the U.S. institution's requirements for the program the student wishes to pursue.

Candidates for graduate standing at a U.S. university will be identified by the diploma they have obtained at an East German institution. This diploma is the approximate equivalent of the college degrees granted in other countries of Eastern Europe and of the Staatsexamen in West Germany. It indicates the holder's field of concentration and signifies readiness for graduate-level study; the confidence which this document inspires obviously depends in part on the institution granting it, on the calibre of the student's performance, on the field of study the candidate has pursued in East Germany, and the discipline he wishes to pursue in the United States. And proficiency in English must always be weighed, especially if the student is subjected to placement testing or graded on a graduate record examination.

Graduate students in East Germany are trained in individual programs known as scholarly *aspirantura* (*wissenschaftliche Aspirantur*). The program leading to the doctoral degree normally requires 3 years of work, a doctoral dissertation and its public defense. At least one additional year of advanced work and a second dissertation are required for the candidate wishing to qualify for university teaching, leading to the second advanced or "habilitated doctor" degree (*habilitierter Doktor* or *Habilitation*). Advanced degrees may be obtained also in part-time programs by teaching assistants and researchers in universities, government institutes, and academies, and by key personnel in the national economy. Such programs are known as special or exceptional *aspirantura* (*ausserplanmässige Aspirantur*).

Students who have reached advanced levels of graduate study, those who hold or are nearing completion of the doctorate, can only be assessed individually by specialists in the student's subject. As in West Germany, doctoral candidates in East Germany take relatively little formal coursework but concentrate instead on thesis preparation and advanced seminars with their major professors. Scrutiny of their dissertations is the only reliable means of precise evaluation, although the doctorate granted by the institutions enumerated above is formally the equivalent of an American Ph.D.

The evaluation of East German educational credentials is freighted at all points with the imponderables resulting from the particular objectives set for the higher educational complex. An able student can secure excellent academic preparation at all levels of the East German system, but the choices available to him and the pressures which condition his choices are closely related to the special needs and goals of East German society at a given stage. Since students react variously to these choices and pressures, there are no simple rules or single formula of equivalence that one can apply with confidence.

East German teacher education varies with the level at which a graduate expects to teach. Preparation for teachers in the lower grades ordinarily falls somewhat short of the equivalent of a B.A. degree. But teachers in the upper grades and in secondary schools are trained in a 4-5 year program resulting in the award of a diploma (Lehrer an höheren Schulen) roughly equivalent to the American B.A. or B.S. degree.

Appendix C

STATISTICS*

Table I: Expenditures from the State Budget

Table II: Expenditures from the State Budget for Cultural and Social Purposes

Table III: Institutions of Higher Education: Students Newly Admitted and Students Graduated

Table IV: Higher Education Enrollments According to Type of Matriculation

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Table VII: Social Origins and/or Positions of Students of Higher Education According to Type of Matriculation

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Table XI: Graduates of Higher Education for West and East Germany from 1962 to 1969

* The first two tables set expenditures for higher education in the context of the state budget, showing how outlays for higher education relate to the total state budget and to those subjects closely related to higher education. The next four tables display higher educational enrollments and graduations; and the seventh, discontinued in the most recent Statistical Yearbook, shows social origins of students enrolled in higher educational institutions. Table VIII relates exclusively to technical education, on the borderline between higher and vocational schooling. And the last three tables place East German enrollment and graduation statistics in a comparative context, in relation to comparable data from West Germany.

Table I

Expenditures from the State Budget
(in millions of Marks)

Year	Total Expenditures	Higher Education (including Technical Schools)	Public Health and Welfare	Social Security and Insurance	Culture including Radio and Television
1950	24,091.0	1,136	1,394	4,575	312
1951	27,274.3	1,365	1,588	4,894	319
1952	32,281.5	1,718	1,466	5,618	326
1953	34,740.9	2,143	1,900	5,882	333
1954	36,142.9	2,375	2,021	6,158	379
1955	38,326.5	2,388	2,059	6,334	392
1956	35,855.9	2,496	2,282	6,494	432
1957	36,376.0	2,966	2,406	7,767	468
1958	42,193.1	2,998	3,095	8,095	548
1959	46,530.2	3,351	3,995	8,870	614
1960	49,457.7	3,613	4,240	9,600	649
1961	50,764.3	3,728	4,350	10,077	681
1962	55,502.5	3,802	4,440	10,404	688
1963	56,085.0	3,894	4,590	10,471	715
1964	56,317.4	4,074	4,765	11,322	749
1965	55,759.1	4,351	4,877	11,802	802
1966	60,831.4	4,613	4,954	11,960	850
1967	59,026.1	4,852	5,217	12,460	913
1968	59,503.9	4,964	5,390	13,351	936

Source: Statistisches Jahrbuch der Deutschen Demokratischen Republik 1969 (Berlin: Staatsverlag der DDR, 1969), pp. 325-326.

Table II

Expenditures from the State Budget for Cultural and Social Purposes
(in thousands of Marks)

Category	1967	1968
Health, Welfare, and Social Security..........................	17,676,414	18,741,383
Public, Vocational, Technical, and Physical Education......	4,193,080	4,215,986
Pre-School	352,689	360,277
Youth Services	152,718	167,329
Public Schools	2,411,602	2,454,014
Vocational Education	868,797	849,187
Technical Education	305,851	284,045
Physical Education	101,423	101,134
Science, Art, and Culture................................	2,722,017	2,958,764
Art and Culture	319,776	321,861
Mass Culture	916,191	953,920
Science*	1,486,050	1,682,983
Higher Education	631,376	649,472
Residences and Dining Halls	55,919	61,167
Academies	165,249	226,964
Scientific and Technical Institutes	378,173	464,306
Other	154,257	153,022
Grand Total...........	24,591,511	25,916,133

*The breakdown of this category is shown in the box immediately below, but the listed items do not account for the entire amount allocated to Science.

Source: Statistisches Jahrbuch der Deutschen Demokratischen Republik 1969 (Berlin: Staatsverlag der DDR, 1969), p. 327.

Table III

Institutions of Higher Education: Students Newly Admitted and Students Graduated

Year	Institutions	New Admissions				Graduates			
		Total	Full-time Study	Correspondence Study	Evening Students	Total	Full-time Study	Correspondence Study	Evening Students
1951	21		9,555			4,631	4,631		
1955	46	19,113	14,709	4,404		7,617	7,564	53	
1960	44	31,167	18,735	6,889	857	15,136	11,658	2,666	
1961	44	29,648	18,332	6,683	1,164	13,978	9,382	2,295	4
1962	43	24,113	15,989	5,271	716	17,459	11,866	3,285	15
1963	44	24,082	15,939	5,695	642	17,386	12,170	4,161	149
1964	44	22,928	16,050	5,793	654	19,470	13,567	5,233	294
1965	44	23,994	16,360	6,319	764	20,190	13,739	5,530	492
1966	44	23,292	16,528	5,436	888	20,054	13,797	5,266	512
1967	44	23,860	16,413	6,299	763	18,399	13,369	4,149	367
1968	44	26,796	20,023	5,720	623	18,385	13,448	4,042	383
		Females				Females			
1967		8,319	7,120	1,134	39	4,822	3,943	761	53
1968		10,100	8,928	1,103	38	5,035	4,102	838	28

Source: Statistisches Jahrbuch der Deutschen Demokratischen Republik 1969 (Berlin: Staatsverlag der DDR, 1969), p. 388.

Table IV

Higher Education Enrollments According to Type of Matriculation

Year	Total	Females	Full-time Study				Correspondence Study		Evening Study		No. per 10,000 population
			Total	Females	Those on Scholarship	Children of Workers and Peasants	Total	Females	Total	Females	
1951	31,512	6,510	27,822	6,510	24,484	11,403	3,690				17.2
1955	74,742	19,141	60,148	17,650	53,146	32,972	14,594	1,491			41.7
1960	101,773	25,398.	69,129	21,900	61,684	38,736	22,544	1,926	1,221	105	59.0
1961	112,929	28,715	74,205	23,729	65,891	40,782	27,335	3,262	2,533	266	65.9
1962	114,002	29,941	77,227	25,488	65,394	41,390	27,913	3,385	2,963	311	66.7
1963	115,673	29,959	78,405	24,900	67,658	39,550	30,628	4,128	3,411	390	67.4
1964	110,664	28,574	75,878	23,873	64,477	36,021	30,617	4,353	3,319	272	65.1
1965	108,791	28,377	74,896	23,354	62,969	35,646	29,548	4,651	3,372	262	63.8
1966	106,422	29,024	74,777	24,186	61,470	34,678	27,054	4,444	3,556	234	62.3
1967	106,534	31,071	74,705	26,367	61,818	34,200	27,387	4,410	3,549	174	62.4
1968	110,581	35,079	78,308	30,336			27,911	4,481	3,566	179	64.7

Source: Statistisches Jahrbuch der Deutschen Demokratischen Republik 1968, 1969 (Berlin: Staatsverlag der DDR, 1968, 1969), p. 470, p. 388.

Table V

Enrollments in Higher Education According to Field of Study

Field	1956	1958	1960	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968
Mathematics, Natural Sciences (incl. Psychology)	9,011	8,832	9,331	10,153	9,885	9,344	9,111	9,066	9,061	10,015
Technical Sciences (incl. Architecture & Engineering)	18,182	20,740	23,997	25,899	26,315	26,682	27,451	27,738	27,238	28,617
Agriculture, Forestry, Veterinary Medicine, Horticulture	7,153	7,421	9,084	8,390	8,782	8,264	8,208	7,474	7,346	7,276
Medicine (incl. Dentistry)	9,900	10,898	12,116	13,801	14,690	14,530	13,630	12,133	11,461	10,404
Economics, Law, & Journalism	15,173	14,224	18,906	18,061	16,746	13,869	13,249	14,143	16,158	18,091
Humanities	2,612	1,774	2,712	3,509	3,367	3,207	2,617	2,591	2,771	2,908
Arts	1,586	1,302	1,786	2,378	2,007	1,769	1,604	1,618	1,611	1,797
Physical Education	1,044	847	976	1,136	1,624	1,082	1,117	1,079	1,131	1,171
Theology	937	751	585	554	592	624	642	613	580	576
Education	14,381	16,030	22,280	30,121	31,665	31,293	31,162	29,967	29,177	29,726
Totals	79,979	82,819	101,773	114,002	115,673	110,664	108,791	106,422	106,534	110,581

Source: Statistisches Jahrbuch der Deutschen Demokratischen Republik 1969 (Berlin: Staatsverlag der DDR, 1969), pp. 392-393.

Table VI

Graduates of Higher Education According to Field of Study

Field	1956	1958	1960	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968
Mathematics, Natural Sciences (incl. Psychology)	905	1,312	1,491	1,295	1,502	1,558	1,689	1,509	1,643	1,472
Technical Sciences (incl. Architecture & Engineering)	745	1,481	3,114	2,573	2,450	2,714	3,091	3,370	3,711	4,140
Agriculture, Forestry, Veterinary Medicine, Horticulture	1,096	822	1,340	1,613	1,244	1,642	1,686	1,698	1,625	1,551
Medicine (incl. Dentistry)	949	1,203	1,185	1,653	1,594	1,895	2,175	2,627	1,971	2,660
Economics, Law & Journalism	1,679	2,290	3,116	3,675	3,247	3,692	3,915	2,850	1,676	1,782
Humanities	564	636	322	252	361	452	1,047	581	441	446
Arts	374	346	274	337	335	438	368	498	347	302
Physical Education	193	206	208	147	268	221	215	213	169	186
Theology	76	162	149	112	87	100	80	101	109	97
Education	3,721	3,323	3,937	5,802	6,298	6,758	5,924	6,607	6,707	5,749
Totals	10,302	11,781	15,136	17,459	17,386	19,470	20,190	20,054	18,399	18,385

Source: Statistisches Jahrbuch der Deutschen Demokratischen Republik 1969 (Berlin: Staatsverlag der DDR, 1969), pp. 393-393.

Table VII

Social Origins and/or Positions of Students of Higher Education According to Type of Matriculation (in percentages)

Year	Total	Workers	Employees	Production Coop Members	Intelligentsia	Independently Employed	Other
			Social Origins of Full-time Students				
1960	100	50.3	19.2	4.2	15.6	8.0	2.7
1965	100	40.6	24.0	6.7	18.7	6.7	3.3
1966	100	39.1	23.5	7.2	19.7	6.9	3.6
1967	100	38.2	23.5	7.8	20.4	7.1	3.0
			Social Positions of Students in Correspondence and Evening Study				
1960	100	7.3	61.8	0.8	27.9	2.0	0.2
1965	100	11.3	30.6	3.3	52.7	1.3	0.9
1966	100	11.4	29.4	1.7	55.7	1.3	0.5
1967	100	11.9	30.8	1.8	53.8	1.4	0.4

Source: Statistisches Jahrbuch der Deutschen Demokratischen Republik 1968 (Berlin: Staatsverlag der DDR, 1968), p. 473. (The edition for 1969 does not continue this particular tabulation.)

Table VIII

Enrollments in Technical Schools According to Type of Matriculation

(in thousands)

Year	Total	Female	Those on Scholarship	Full-time Study		Correspondence Study		Evening Study		No. per 10,000 population
				Total	Female	Total	Female	Total	Female	
1960	126.0	36.0	55.3	47.3	15.5	30.5	5.6	25.6	2.2	73.1
1961	141.5	42.3	42.1	43.6	12.8	38.2	8.9	29.1	3.1	82.6
1962	135.0	41.4	45.9	47.9	19.8	40.1	10.0	28.6	3.9	78.9
1963	120.2	33.6	48.3	52.0	19.9	42.8	9.7	25.5	4.0	70.1
1964	110.9	31.9	43.6	47.3	16.9	41.6	10.8	22.0	4.2	65.3
1965	111.8	34.5	47.1	50.8	19.9	37.6	9.2	23.4	5.4	65.7
1966	119.3	42.6	48.5	52.6	23.2	43.6	14.1	23.2	5.3	69.9
1967	124.1	45.5	50.5	55.1	25.7	44.2	13.9	24.8	5.9	72.6
1968	140.6	58.4	54.6	59.1	30.1	53.3	20.7	28.2	7.6	82.3

Source: Statistisches Jahrbuch der Deutschen Demokratischen Republik 1969 (Berlin: Staatsverlag der DDR, 1969), p. 383.

Table IX

Higher Education Enrollments for West and East Germany from 1960 to 1969
(in thousands)

Year/Semester	West Germany			East Germany		
	Total (excluding foreign students)	Female	Percentage of female students	Total (excluding foreign students)	Female	Percentage of female students
1960 WS	225.9	63.7	28.2	101.8	25.4	24.9
1964 WS	277.7	77.2	27.8	110.7	28.6	25.8
1968 SS	313.1	98.5	31.2	110.6	35.1	31.7
1969 SS	337.2	104.5	31.0	122.8	41.7	33.9

WS = Winter Semester; SS = Summer Semester

Source: Bericht der Bundesregierung und Materialien zur Lage der Nation 1971 (Bonn: Bundesministerium für innerdeutsche Beziehungen, 1971), p. 416.

Table X

Higher Education Enrollments (excluding foreigners) for West and East Germany from 1960 to 1969 according to disciplines (in percentages)

Discipline	West Germany			East Germany			
	1960/1	1964/5	1967/8	1960	1964	1968	1969
Mathematics, Natural Sciences	10.3	10.4	11.4	7.8	7.3	8.3	8.2
Technical Sciences	13.4	12.3	9.8	23.3	24.3	26.1	29.7
Medicine, Agricultural Sciences	13.9	14.7	14.1	22.0	21.5	16.6	13.5
Economics	9.5	11.7	10.4	14.7	10.1	12.7	14.4
Philosophy, History, Political Science, Law	10.0	9.9	11.6	4.7	2.9	4.2	4.3
Cultural Sciences, Physical Education	4.4	3.9	3.6	1.7	1.9	2.2	2.0
Language and Literature	6.4	4.5	4.3	1.4	1.1	0.9	0.9
Art	3.0	2.5	2.4	1.7	1.5	1.6	1.6
Pedagogy	29.1	30.0	32.4	22.8	29.3	27.5	25.4

Source: Bericht der Bundesregierung und Materialien zur Lage der Nation 1971 (Bonn: Bundesministerium für innerdeutsche Beziehungen, 1971), pp. 412-413.

Table XI

Graduates of Higher Education for West and East Germany from 1962 to 1969

(in percentages)

Discipline	West Germany			East Germany			
	1962	1964	1967	1962	1964	1967	1969
Mathematics, Natural Sciences	5.2	5.4	5.5	6.2	6.6	7.4	6.5
Technical Sciences	10.5	10.1	9.3	14.9	14.6	20.4	20.2
Medicine, Agricultural Sciences	13.1	13.6	15.0	19.8	19.0	20.8	19.0
Economics	7.9	8.0	10.2	15.8	13.8	7.9	12.8
Philosophy, History, Political Science, Law	10.5	8.3	8.9	5.1	5.5	1.8	3.0
Cultural Sciences, Physical Education, Language and Literature	5.4	5.2	5.4	3.0	2.7	2.7	3.2
Art	4.2	3.7	3.9	1.9	2.2	1.8	1.5
Pedagogy	43.4	45.7	41.8	33.4	35.6	37.0	33.7

Source: Bericht der Bundesregierung und Materialien zur Lage der Nation 1971 (Bonn: Bundesministerium für innerdeutsche Beziehungen, 1971), pp. 414-415.

Appendix D

CHRONOLOGY*

1945

4 July - Founding of the *Kulturbund zur demokratischen Erneuerung Deutschlands*, dedicated to indoctrination of Germans in a spirit of militant democracy and to acquainting them with the cultural achievements of all nations, particularly those of the Soviet Union.

14 July - Establishment of the *Einheitsfront der antifaschistisch-demokratischen Parteien* containing all political parties sanctioned by the Soviet Military Administration.

25 July - Inauguration of eleven "German Administrations" with jurisdiction over the Soviet Zone of Occupation, one of which was charged with supervision of education under the direction of Paul Wandel (KPD).

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*Based on *SBZ von 1945-1949* and successive editions of that publication through 1962; also on the documentary collection by Siegfried Baske and Martha Engelbert, *Zwei Jahrzehnte Bildungspolitik in der Sowjetzone Deutschlands*; and on the regular chronicles of events published in the periodicals *East Europe*, *SBZ Archiv*, and *Deutschland Archiv*. For the sake of perspective a few events have been included that have no bearing on higher education.

1945 (cont.)

2 August - Close of the Potsdam Conference with agreement on an Allied Control Council responsible for all of occupied Germany.

15 October - The five faculties of the University of Jena resume their teaching activities, only to be closed down again temporarily in December.

1946

20 January - The University of Berlin resumes teaching.

1 February - The University of Halle resumes teaching.

5 February - The University of Leipzig resumes teaching.

15 February - The University of Greifswald resumes teaching.

25 February - The University of Rostock resumes teaching.

7 March - Formation of the Freie Deutsche Jugend (FDJ) as a device for indoctrination of youth and for influencing students engaged in secondary and higher education.

19 April - Merger of the Socialist and Communist Parties to form the Socialist Unity Party (SED), followed two days later by the first party congress.

8 May - Establishment of a Chamber of Technology under the central German Administration to further technical training and research.

4 June - Adoption of a School Law effective throughout East Germany.

1946 (cont.)

5 June - Opening of the SED Party School Karl Marx designed to train functionaries, especially those from the SPD, in Marxism-Leninism.

4 July - Reopening of the former Prussian Academy of Sciences under the name, German Academy of Sciences, with the classicist, Professor J. Stroux, as president. The Academy was formally subordinated to the Administration for Education but remained under the actual supervision of the Soviet authorities.

11 October - A Pedagogical Faculty is established in Greifswald to join those at the Universities of Berlin, Leipzig, Halle, Jena, and Rostock and hasten the preparation of teachers for all levels of public education.

14 October - Establishment of a Faculty of Economics at the University of Berlin.

10 December - A Provisional Student Statute for Higher Education is released by the Central Administration of Education.

1947

26 May - Second FDJ Congress emphasizes the need to strengthen its influence in higher education.

20 June - First Student Congress of the Soviet Zone favors Workers' and Peasants' Faculties at the universities so long as they do not become

1947 (cont.)

purely political; forms a Student Council for the Soviet Zone with a bare non-communist majority.

22 July - Administrative regulation on higher educational admissions policy.

1 September - The Karl Marx Party School is moved to the outskirts of Berlin and is divided into faculties of history, philosophy, and economics.

24 September - The Second SED Party Congress emphasizes the importance of the involvement of the technical and scientific intelligentsia.

3 December - The ministers of education decide to attach college preparatory facilities to the universities.

29 December - The SED decides to establish a research institute of scientific socialism.

1948

24 June - Berlin Blockade begins.

22 September - Founding of the Free University Berlin with both students and faculty consisting largely of persons dissatisfied with the character of higher education in East Germany.

30 November - The division of Berlin into separate administrations is completed when the SED takes the lead in establishing a separate administration for East Berlin.

1948 (cont.)

5 December - Beginning of the student elections in which the non-communist majorities were defeated at all of the universities except Greifswald.

1949

29 March - The Research Institute for Scientific Socialism, in operation since the beginning of 1949, is renamed Marx-Engels-Lenin Institute, placed under the direction of the SED party executive, and assigned editorial and research tasks relating to official ideology.

31 March - The central authorities order special privileges for members of the intelligentsia, especially professional and technical personnel whose efforts are important in fulfilling the economic plan. The same order establishes the Workers' and Peasants' Faculties as branches of the universities, as well as a Central Institute for Improvement in the Qualifications of Teachers, located in Berlin with branches to be set up in each province.

12 May - End of the Berlin Blockade.

21 May - Policies on Workers' and Peasants' Faculties go into effect.

30 May - The Third German People's Congress ratifies the new constitution of the German Democratic Republic.

1949 (cont.)

10 October - The German Academy of Sciences is placed under the Ministry of Education in the GDR's governmental structure.

12 October - Paul Wandel (SED) is named Minister of Education in the new government proposed by Grotewohl and approved by the provisional People's Chamber.

11 November - The Soviet Military Administration is dissolved and replaced by a Soviet Control Commission that handles relations with the other occupation powers.

30 December - The Education Ministry announces elections for student and faculty councils at the universities for the winter semester 1949-50, with candidates to be proposed by the mass organizations active in the universities.

1950

4 February - The German Academy of Administration is named for Walter Ulbricht, and he states in a speech there that the Academy is expected to train state functionaries for all of Germany.

9 February - The unified electoral list of the National Front receives the following percentages of the university vote in an election that did not provide for other candidacies: Berlin - 58.4%; Greifswald - 67.2%; Halle - 79.4%; Jena - 71.6%; Leipzig - 73.8%; Rostock - 71.2%.

1950 (cont.)

16 February - The government establishes as an institution of higher education an Institute of Economic Planning attached to the Ministry of Planning and absorbing the similar institute located at the University of Leipzig.

24 March - The government establishes the German Academy of Arts as successor to the Prussian Academy and names the writer Arnold Zweig as president.

15 June - Regulation issued on continuing education programs for workers.

11 August - The Education Minister of Thuringia announces that the famous experimental school at the University of Jena will be closed.

29 September - East Germany is accepted as a member of COMECON.

5 October - The government announces an order concerning candidates for higher degrees which emphasizes the need to train a generation of able and politically reliable scholars.

23 October - The government opens a higher school for physical training in Leipzig.

1951

11 January - The government determines that a German Academy of Agricultural Sciences should be established, though the actual founding did not occur until late in the year in Berlin.

1951 (cont.)

19 January - The Education Ministry releases a scholarship regulation for higher education that establishes more rigorous selection according to capabilities. At the same time, the SED Central Committee decides to raise the number of students in the Workers' and Peasants' Faculties to at least 10,000 and to provide stipends for 25,000 students. The party further notes, at the 4th meeting of the central committee, that ideological training must be intensified, that a central State Secretariat shall be responsible for the administration of higher education, and that the political-ideological work of SED units in the universities should report directly to the central committee of the party.

22 February - The State Secretariat for Higher Education is established under the direction of Dr. Gerhard Harig (SED), absorbing all higher educational sections of central and provincial Ministries of Education.

26 February - Expansion of the Chamber of Technology to have greater impact on both domestic and West German scientists and technicians.

4 May - The State Secretariat for Higher Education decrees the ten-month academic year for all institutions of higher education, to take effect in September 1951.

1951 (cont.)

21 May - The State Secretariat installs four prorectors at each university to improve administration and relieve rectors of excessive responsibility.

10 July - The SED Politburo urges extension of the improvement in material rewards granted technicians to include scientists and instructors in higher education. The government responds with such actions two days later.

7 August- The SED central committee decides to establish an Institute for Social Sciences, the founding of which follows in December under the aegis of the party.

7 September - The State Secretariat for Higher Education institutes central examination offices at all universities under the direction of the prorectors for student affairs.

20 October - The SED central committee recommends that teachers in party schools be allowed to earn professorial titles; it also orders the establishment of an Institute for German History in the German Academy of Sciences and of Institutes for the History of the German People at the Universities of Berlin and Leipzig.

15 November - The Council of Ministers seeks to further the development of scholarly work by insisting

1951 (cont.)

that candidates be well supported and, at the same time, carefully watched for political reliability.

1952

15 January - The SED leadership reminds party and FDJ functionaries that 'bourgeois' scientists are still needed in the GDR and that professorial authority must be respected in the universities.

31 January - A division of technical education (*Fachschulwesen*) is established within the Secretariat for Higher Education. Although the technical schools remain under the direction of the respective governmental ministries, the new division is to provide overall policies for development in terms of the economic plan.

11 February - The State Secretariat sets an admissions policy for higher education that promises advantages for the children of intellectuals and professional persons.

6 March - The faculty of transport at the Technical College in Dresden is made a separate college.

27 March - The government requires that all students devote vacation time to practical work in their specialty. The Council of Ministers establishes a German Institute of Law.

1952 (cont.)

2 May - The German College of Justice is founded in Berlin-Babelsberg, replacing the Central Judicial School of the GDR.

5 May - The Technical College in Dresden is placed directly under the direction of the State Secretariat for Higher Education.

28 June - Salaries are doubled for professors in universities and other higher educational institutions.

23 July - The People's Chamber legislates the provinces out of existence, replacing them with districts (Bezirke). Two days later the five provinces are succeeded by 14 districts.

28 August - The Council of Ministers removes substantial university autonomy from rector, senate, and faculty, placing control in the hands of the prorectors.

20 September - The first central Conference on Higher Education informs university authorities of the decision of the Council of Ministers.

25 September - The State Secretariat establishes in Plauen an Institute for Teacher Training for Technical Schools.

1953

23 January - Ulbricht speaks before the special meeting of the German Academy of Sciences and urges the sciences to dedicate themselves to Marxism-Leninism.

1953 (cont.)

20 February - The Walter Ulbricht Academy of Administration is joined with the College of Justice to form the German Academy of the Science of State and Law Walter Ulbricht in Potsdam-Babelsberg.

15 April - The Marx-Engels-Lenin Institute is renamed the Marx-Engels-Lenin-Stalin Institute and placed under the direction of Ackermann, State Secretary in the Foreign Ministry. The Party School Karl Marx and the Social Science Institute of the SED are granted the right to confer doctoral degrees and habilitations. The FDJ and FDGB are expected to select 6,000 candidates for the Workers' and Peasants' Faculties in 1953.

23 April - Johannes R. Becher replaces Arnold Zweig as president of the German Academy of Arts.

30 April - The Karl Marx scholarships are established as the highest prize available to students in the GDR.

5 May - The University of Leipzig is named for Karl Marx.

15 May - In an order concerning teacher training, the government establishes that teachers for the middle grades will be trained in pedagogical institutes belonging within higher education; and teachers for the higher grades will be trained in those institutes and in universities. In both cases, non-residential study is possible.

1953 (cont.)

17 June - High point of the uprising against the government, initiated by a workers' strike the day before and terminated by Soviet forces on the 17th, although some unrest was still discernible thereafter.

6 August - The State Secretariat for Higher Education is charged with the task of developing a plan for the expansion of the universities.

25 August - The Central College for Agricultural Producers' Cooperatives is opened in Meissen, its instructional program to become operative on 2 September

16 September - A College of Electro-Technology is opened in Illmenau.

20 October - A German College of Theater is opened in Leipzig.

1 November - Professor K. Hager addresses an SED Conference on Higher Education in Leipzig, declaring that th institutions of higher education are responsible for producing reliable cadres for the development of the GDR, criticizing the FDJ in passing for failing in its political work with students.

1954

7 January - Establishment of the Ministry of Culture under Johannes R. Becher with Apelt and Abusch as deputies. It assumes the responsibilities of the adult education section of the Ministry of Education.

1954 (cont.)

10 February - Architectural Colleges are opened in Leipzig, Cottbus, and Schwerin.

17 June - Formal establishment of a Society for the Dissemination of Scientific Knowledge, intended to reach a popular audience with the findings of scholarly research and experimentation.

7 September - Medical Colleges are founded in Erfurt, Dresden, and Magdeburg.

1 October - A College of Foreign Trade is established in Berlin.

20 October - Teaching begins at the College of Chemistry near Merseburg.

19 November - Grotewohl names his government to the People's Chamber, listing Fritz Lange in place of the retired Wandel as Minister of Education and Prof. Harig as State Secretary for Higher Education. Becher continues as Minister of Culture.

1955

8 January - Fritz Apelt of the Ministry of Culture addresses the second Cultural Congress of the FDJ and urges more vigorous cultural activity by the youth organization, with special reference to East German patriotism.

1 February - The Politburo of the SED demands closer ties between the various branches of the economy and the scientific activities of the German Academy.

1955 (cont.)

3 February - The Council of Ministers adopts a plan for the advancement of youth in 1955 requiring that the children of workers and peasants comprise 60% of new admissions to institutions of higher education and 70% of new admissions to technical schools. At the same time, the government fixes stipends at 180 DM per month for children of workers and peasants, 130 DM per month for the children of white collar workers, artisans, and intellectuals, provided that political reliability is demonstrated. The Council of Ministers also provides for vocational advisory commissions to influence the professional choices of graduates; and establishes the Institute for Literature in Leipzig.

28 March - An institute for East and South Slavic Religious Studies is opened in Humboldt University, Berlin.

16 June - Conclusion of the Conference on Higher Education in Leipzig, during which the emphasis had been on political and ideological training.

2 July - A group of East German scientists journeys to Moscow to participate in a meeting of the Soviet Academy of Sciences concerning the peaceful uses of atomic energy.

5 July - The Politburo addresses itself to problems of historical study, emphasizing the need for greater attention to historical materialism,

1955 (cont.)

for better planning of historical research, for an Institute for History in the Academy, and for a Society of GDR Historians.

24 August - The Chamber of Technology is removed from the jurisdiction of the FDGB and made "an independent democratic professional organization for technicians and intellectuals" reporting to the Ministry of Interior.

27 August - At the second conference of technical schools, the head of that department in the State Secretariat for Higher Education, Walter Muth, emphasizes the importance of the 81,000 students in such schools for the building of socialism.

11 September - The presidium of the Society for Dissemination of Scientific Knowledge meets to study the work of its opposite number in the Soviet Union and to hear its chairman, Prof. Rothmaler, urge the application of Soviet experience to the German academic tradition.

20 September - Soviet East German treaty is signed in Moscow assuring the GDR of its sovereignty. The Soviet High Commissioner is replaced by an ambassador.

30 September - Prof. Alfred Kurella (SED) is named head of the new Institute for Literature in Leipzig, reporting to the Ministry of Culture.

12 October - A Section for Legal Studies is established in the German Academy of Sciences.

1955 (cont.)

10 November - The Council of Ministers forms a scientific advisory group of 21 scientists and engineers to consult with it on peaceful uses of atomic energy; plans are drawn for the training of cadres in the field of nuclear physics and for the establishment of a faculty in this field at the Technical College in Dresden.

29 November - In honor of Friedrich Engels' 135th birthday, his name is given to the Workers' and Peasants' Faculty of Humboldt University.

2 December - At the second Conference on Higher Education in Leipzig, Kurt Hager emphasizes the importance of overcoming hostile ideologies in the universities and of tightening the relationship between higher education and the practical needs of society.

7 December - The Secretariat for Higher Education prohibits the use of higher educational facilities by the Evangelical Student Organizations.

1956

26 January - An Institute for Radio Journalism is founded within the journalism faculty of the Karl Marx University in Leipzig.

3 February - The Kulturbund and the Society for Dissemination of Scientific Knowledge pledge mutual assistance and cooperation in their respective tasks.

1956 (cont.)

6 March - Franz Dahlem, former Politburo member who had been out of favor, reappears in public under the title, departmental director in the State Secretariat for Higher Education.

10 March - The Philosophical Section of the Academy holds a conference on the question of freedom, featuring a lecture by Prof. Ernst Bloch.

1 April - Opening of the Institute for Research in Folk Art in Leipzig.

12 April - The Institute for Social Sciences of the SED Central Committee announces four year programs of study in philosophy, history, political economy, and other subjects, to begin in September 1956.

13 April - Prof. Otto Nagel is elected to replace Johannes R. Becher as president of the German Academy of Arts.

18 April - State Secretary Harig reports to the conference of rectors of universities and other institutions of higher education on the conclusions of the third SED Party Conference as they apply to higher education. He stresses the importance of practical social needs for higher education, new methods of instruction, and greater independence for rectors and department heads. It is suggested in the discussion that all institutions of higher education be brought under the Secretariat for Higher Education.

1956 (cont.)

26 April - The GDR and USSR sign an agreement in Moscow on cultural and scientific cooperation.

8 June - Prof. Georg Klaus of the Philosophical Institute, Humboldt University, criticizes in *Neues Deutschland* the uneven quality of publication and teaching among GDR philosophers and urges more intensive and creative use of the teachings of Marx, Engels, and Lenin to produce better work in philosophy.

21 June - *Neues Deutschland* reports Walter Ulbricht's speech to a party unit at Humboldt University in which he urged both a more creative scholarly atmosphere and a firmer grasp of Marxism-Leninism.

24 June - News report of a discussion between professors and officials on a basic plan for the study of social science, the majority endorsing a course involving the study of dialectical and historical materialism in the first year, the political economy of capitalism in the second, and the Marxist-Leninist theory of class struggle and socialism in the third.

27 June - Report of a debate among officials and literary scholars on the relationship between contemporary literature and literary scholarship. Prof. Hans Meyer criticized the literary output of the GDR, while Alfred Kurella admonished the literary scholars for being out of step with changing circumstances.

1956 (cont.)

29 July - The Third Party Conference of the SED addresses itself to science, historical scholarship, and pedagogy with the demand for a more thoroughgoing incorporation of Marxism-Leninism into education and research.

31 July - The University of Rostock announces the erection of a nuclear institute, to be finished at the end of 1958, where nuclear research will be pursued and where 15 to 20 nuclear physicists can be trained each year.

14 August - Death of Bertolt Brecht.

25 August - Viktor Stern, head of the philosophical faculty of the SED party school, attacks the previous month's remarks of the physicist, Prof. Robert Havemann, on grounds that his objections to dogmatism conceal a tendency to weaken the case for dialectical materialism in all the sciences.

4 September - A Technical School for Labor Economics is opened in Halle.

6 September - The FDGB inaugurates a three-year course at its college in Bernau designed to culminate in a diploma in economics.

8 September - State Secretariat for Higher Education releases regulations on the granting of academic degrees.

1956 (cont.)

10 September - The College of Economics in Karlshorst, which replaces both the College of Economics and Planning and the College of Finance, opens the new academic year with a four-year course designed to train economists for East German state administration and industrial enterprise.

20 September - Prof. Lemnitz is named rector of the College of Economics in Berlin-Karlshorst.

16 October - The University of Greifswald celebrates its 500th anniversary.

23 October - Prof. Georg Klaus of Humboldt University and Alfred Kosing of the SED Institute of Social Sciences join in the attack on Prof. Havemann.

28 October - State Secretary for Higher Education, Gerhard Harig, admits in the educational journal Forum that criticism of the basic course in social science has been justified and praises the new three-stage course designed to introduce all students to Marxism-Leninism. He also states that he regards the knowledge of Russian as essential for every student.

31 October - Alfred Neumann, first secretary of the Berlin District SED, rebuffs the demand for a separate student organization as an attempt to split the FDJ as organization of all East German youth.

1956 (cont.)

1 November - Karl Schirdewan of the SED Politburo addresses the medical and veterinary students at Humboldt University, rejecting any return to bourgeois democracy but admitting that student participation in university decisions might be allowed under FDJ direction.

2 November - Unrest among some of the Berlin students brings the Minister of National Defense, Willi Stoph, to the Humboldt University to explain the government position and leads the rector, Prof. Walter Neye, to offer students a voice in decisions affecting them.

13 November - The FDJ unit at Humboldt University declares its loyalty to government policy and deplores attempts by students of the veterinary faculty to destroy the unity of the FDJ.

20 November - Kurt Hager of the SED Central Committee speaks to the party organization at the University of Leipzig, stressing the need to explain events in Hungary to students and to initiate greater democratization under FDJ leadership.

22 November - The secretariat of the FDJ Central Council meets to discuss problems of higher education, notably the matter of language requirements and the basic social science course.

1956 (cont.)

27 November - Following FDJ suggestions, the State Secretariat for Higher Education declares that a second foreign language (besides Russian) will be required and that the social science course should be modified to suit the diverse needs and experiences of students in different fields of study, the concluding examination for this sequence to be given at the end of the third academic year as part of the state examination.

14 December - The SED sends a letter addressed to students of the GDR, admitting the need for improvements in foreign language offerings, the social science program of Marxism-Leninism, and pedagogical preparations but insisting on discipline and the adequacy of the FDJ to represent student interests.

16 December - Hager appears at the University of Halle to quiet student unrest, which he blames on "provocative elements."

22 December - The SED Institute for Social Sciences announces admission standards for 1957/58: 23 to 40 years of age, at least five years of party membership with experience in responsible party work, completion of university or party school program of study.

1956 (cont.)

30 December - Ulbricht condemns the activity of the Harich group and the "revisionism" of Ernst Bloch (but without naming him) and reiterates the principle of democratic centralism governing intraparty discussion.

1957

19 January - The seventh meeting of the executive of the Union of Scientists in the FDGB deplores the confusion prevailing in recent months among students and members of the intelligentsia. Condemning the discontented students, the union affirms that its influence will be applied in higher education to further progress toward socialism. At the same time, Ulbricht tells the FDJ conference at the Workers' and Peasants' Faculty of the University of Halle that they must not content themselves with bureaucratic activities among themselves but must instead assure the involvement of masses of students and bring them closer to the practical needs of society.

24 January - The Council of Ministers establishes that for academic year 1957/58, 16,200 students will be admitted to higher educational institutions and 47,300 to technical schools, 15,900 of these in correspondence study.

1957 (cont.)

27 January - The SED delegates conference at the University of Jena adopts the SED letter of 14 December 1956 as its program for the year.

1 February - The State Secretariat for Higher Education abolishes fees for students in residence at institutions of higher education, including technical schools.

13 February - Minister of State Security Ernst Wollweber warns FDJ students at Humboldt University against the provocations of western agents.

28 February - Gerhard Harig is relieved of his duties as State Secretary for Higher Education at his own request so that he can return to his post at Karl Marx University in Leipzig; he is replaced by Wilhelm Girnus.

1 March - The first East German institute for interpreters opens at the University of Leipzig.

17 March - At a two-day FDJ conference at the Humboldt University, during which it was claimed that unrest had been dealt with successfully, Franz Dahlem declared that a year of work in some branch of production would in future be a prerequisite for admission to higher education.

20 March - Prof. Havemann warns in a Neues Deutschland article against capricious attempts to comprehend scientific questions within a philosophy that lacks specialized scientific knowledge.

1957 (cont.)

4 May - Girnus repeats the decision that applicants for admission to higher education must have completed a year of practical work, adding that the manner in which they perform that work will bear on the success of their applications.

22 May - *Neues Deutschland* praises the role played by the Workers' and Peasants' Faculties and insists that they must be maintained as avenues by which working class children can attain university admission and, in turn, help to shape university life in proletarian terms.

1 June - At a meeting of FDJ secretaries it is announced that 25,000 students have volunteered to use vacation time to assist in productive work; other students are urged to join the effort.

6 June - The Council of Ministers forms an advisory Research Council of the GDR to assist in improving the application of scientific findings to economic needs.

14 June - The Conference of Rectors is urged by State Secretary Girnus to work toward a new socialist style in higher education.

12 July - Ulbricht tells the SED Central Committee that all institutions of higher education except pedagogical colleges and art institutes should be under the jurisdiction of the State

1957 (cont.)

Secretariat for Higher Education, with an advisory body from other ministries to consider professional and vocational matters of import.

20 August - Decree on the tasks and structure of the Leipzig institute for foreign students.

22 August - Dr. Alfred Kantorowicz, professor of modern German literature at Humboldt University flees to the west.

28 August - Dr. Girnus calls for all-German cooperation and exchange in scholarly and scientific matters.

22 September - Politburo member Karl Schirdewan reminds the SED organization at Karl Marx University in Leipzig that the working class must concern itself with the education of students, who will be leaders in the next generation.

28 September - A gathering of medical students from all over the GDR hears Luitpold Steidle (CDU), Minister of Health, insist on the close ties between medical practice and social development.

10 October - A conference of all 44 rectors and directors of institutions of higher education is urged by Dr. Girnus to further the development of a pedagogical leadership composed of academics, FDJ, and SED.

1957 (cont.)

17 October - A government order concerning the year of practical work for students spells out that institutions of higher education will admit high school graduates before their year of practical labor but that actual matriculation will be contingent on their performance and social attitudes during that intervening year.

18 December - Announcement that military service of two years will be regarded as fulfillment of the practical work requirement for admission to universities.

1958

7 January - A conference of pedagogues from universities and teacher training institutions is urged to assure that graduates sent into the schools of the GDR are convinced socialists who will teach accordingly.

14 January - Dr. Girnus reports to the People's Chamber that student participation in manual labor has been unsatisfactory, only 28,000 out of 73,000 having reported for productive work. The 19,000 participants from technical schools displayed a significantly higher level of ideological awareness than did the university students. Girnus states that distribution of student aid will be used in future to secure greater participation.

1958 (cont.)

18 January - Dr. Girnus, writing in Neues Deutschland, sharply criticizes the discipline of German literature for being backward in ideological orientation.

30 January - Representatives of the Soviet and East German Academies sign an agreement for scholarly cooperation over the next three years, with an exchange of 55 scholars foreseen for the first year.

30 January - The Foreign Ministry reports that 1,303 foreign students from 46 countries are studying in GDR higher educational institutions.

6 February - Erich Honecker reports to the SED Central Committee that bourgeois ideology still prevails over Marxism-Leninism in most faculties of higher education. He also announces that students who have served longer in production or have seen military service will be given preference in admissions.

28 February - The opening of the third SED Conference on Higher Education is marked by self-criticism and admission of errors by several prominent academics.

10 March - The council of the pedagogical faculty, Humboldt University, agrees unanimously to deprive of their academic degrees those persons who leave East Germany.

1958 (cont.)

2 April - A conference is held at the Academy for Political and Legal Studies 'Walter Ulbricht" on the Marxist-Leninist theory of the state and its application to Germany.

19 April - The University of Rostock revokes the doctoral degree of Franz Wohlgemuth, former deputy state secretary for higher education, because of his flight from the GDR.

20 April - The philosopher Ernst Bloch explains his position in Neues Deutschland in response to SED criticism but without retracting.

21 August - As the University of Jena celebrates its 400th anniversary, its rector, Prof. Josef Hämel, flees to West Germany; in a few days Prof. Otto Schwarz is named to replace him.

21 September - Kurt Hager speaks to SED members at Karl Marx University, stressing the value of scientific work for the economy and the need for greater productivity in scholarship.

9 October - Erich Apel of the Economic Commission of the SED Politburo meets with economists from universities and research institutes to urge a more direct application of academic research to the problems of East German economic planning.

11 October - Death of Johannes R. Becher, Minister of Culture; Alexander Abusch is named to succeed him later in the year.

1958 (cont.)

16 October - Conference of university rectors meets in Erfurt.

8 December - Among the members of the Council of Ministers proposed to the People's Chamber by Grotewohl are: Dr. Alfred Lemmnitz as Minister of Education, Alexander Abusch as Minister of Culture, and Dr. Wilhelm Girnus as State Secretary for Higher and Technical Education.

1959

5 January - Official opening of the Friedrich Engels Military Academy in Dresden.

10 January - Establishment in East Berlin of a commission to develop a unified statute for governance of institutions of higher education and their faculties. Girnus states that a uniform socialist law for higher education will help to extend democratic centralism into this realm.

15 January - Kurt Hager presents to the SED Central Committee a plan to be developed over the next five years for a ten-year polytechnical high school for all children. An extended twelve-year program would lead directly to higher education, by way of the practical year of manual labor; but graduates of the ten-year program could also secure admission to higher education via three years of vocational school while working.

1959 (cont.)

10 February - Minister of Education Lemmnitz installs Prof. Hans Kaiser as director of the German Pedagogical Central Institute.

12 February - Announcement of the arrest of a group of students who are reported to have organized a counter-revolutionary group at the Technical College in Dresden. Their sentences are announced in April.

22 April - Meeting of the Conference of Rectors in Magdeburg.

22 May - The central statistical office shows that, in the ten years of its existence, the GDR has dropped in total population from 18,892,000 to 17,310,670.

17 June - The Society for Dissemination of Scientific Knowledge announces that its membership has grown to 18,000 in the five years of its existence.

24 June - Franz Dahlem states in *Neues Deutschland* that the scientific and technical fields of higher education must be enlarged, noting that the quotas for medicine and the humanities (except philosophy) are overfilled.

4 July - Prof. Linus Pauling, USA, receives an honorary doctorate from Humboldt University.

1959 (cont.)

17 July - The West German Union of Students, meeting in Würzburg, reports that 24 professors, 35 dozents, 814 students, and 75 applicants for admission to study had been sentenced for political offenses up to that point in the GDR.

28 July - The SED Central Committee suggests a faster and more versatile program of vocational education involving a higher proportion of women and more political training.

1 October - The new law on the seven-year plan foresees the training of approximately four times as many engineers, twice as many doctors, dentists, and teachers, two and a half times as many chemists, physicists, mathematicians, and pharmacists as were graduated in the previous seven years.

11 October - The University of Leipzig celebrates its 550th anniversary. Ulbricht's address on the next day emphasizes the need for university-trained cadres to implement the seven-year plan.

16 October - *Neues Deutschland* reports a discussion in the Academy of Sciences in which SED officials urged collective scientific work and closer ties between scholarship and industry for the sake of the new economic projection.

2 December - The People's Chamber enacts a new school law providing for systematic introduction of a general ten-class polytechnical education by fall 1964.

1960

15 January - Third Congress of Vocational Educators meets in Leipzig, dealing mainly with the challenges the seven-year plan makes to vocational education.

30 January - The State Secretariat for Higher and Technical Education reports that planned increases in higher educational enrollments have been exceeded, though technical schools show a more modest increase. The children of working peasants still form too small a proportion of the student population.

10 March - Dr. Girnus heads a delegation of GDR scholars to study higher education in India and to discuss scientific exchanges.

25 March - The GDR signs a cultural agreement with China providing for increased exchange of scholars.

22 April - In Warsaw the GDR and Poland sign an agreement on economic and scientific collaboration.

9 May - Joint policy of the State Planning Commission and the State Secretariat for Higher and Technical Education on vocational placement of graduates.

14 June - Neues Deutschland reports SED consideration of the role of propaganda in fulfilling the seven-year plan and suggests that teachers of social science, a field that has not kept pace with other educational advances, are especially important in this connection.

1960 (cont.)

2 September - The institutions of higher education of the GDR are admitted to the International Union of Universities, and representatives from Humboldt and Karl Marx Universities attend the ensuing general conference in Mexico City.

7 September - Death of Wilhelm Pieck, President of the GDR.

27 September - Announcement of the formation of a German Academy for Continuing Medical Education designed to offer courses and meetings that will keep the medical knowledge of doctors up to date.

12 October - Founding of the German Society for Agricultural Sciences in Halle under the presidency of Prof. Liebenberg of the University of Berlin; the Society is to serve the interests of students and university teachers, as well as those of research scientists.

14 October - Karl Marx University establishes an Africa Institute.

22 October - Ulbricht participates in the 10th anniversary celebration of the German College of Physical Education in Leipzig, urging it to undertake to bring East German athletic achievements to higher levels and recommending the transfer of the College to the jurisdiction of the State Committee on Physical Education and Sport.

2 November - Beginning of the 150th anniversary ceremonies at Humboldt University.

1960 (cont.)

2 November - Establishment at Karl Marx University of a research center to study anticolonial independence movements.

15 November - Albert Schweitzer is given an honorary doctorate by the medical faculty of Humboldt University.

1961

4 January - The Public Health section of the SED Central Committee notes that the GDR has 20,500 physicians; half that many more are to be trained by 1965.

9 January - Karl Marx University opens a division for tropical veterinary studies that is to provide technical aid to African and other tropical states.

2 February - A West Berlin court decides that Humboldt University is not to be regarded as legal descendant of the former Friedrich-Wilhelm University and is thus not entitled to property owned by that institution in West Germany and West Berlin.

22 February - Paul Wandel, former minister who was earlier disciplined by the party but is now deputy foreign minister, speaks at the 15th anniversary of the reopening of Humboldt University, praising the USSR for help in rebuilding the university.

1961 (cont.)

17 March - Prof. Walter Markov of the Institute for General History, University of Leipzig, is chosen president of the new German-African Society.

6 April - The Council of Ministers releases a regulation concerning the responsibility of the State Planning Commission to deal with the transition of students from higher education to professional activity. Students are expected to know their vocational objectives at least a year before graduation; and their academic work is to be geared to their future positions.

10 May - Franz Dahlem of the State Secretariat for Higher and Technical Education admits that student applicants fell short of planned numbers for 1961 in such fields as agriculture, economics, and mining, whereas the fields of medicine had two to three times as many applicants as could be placed.

10 May - The College of Heavy Machinery Construction in Magdeburg is elevated to the status of a technical college and named for Otto von Guericke. Prof. Giessmann is named rector.

19 May - Kurt Hager concludes a Berlin conference of research institutes and university professors concerned with social science by stressing the importance of teaching students about

1961 (cont.)

the complex relation between theory and practice in the building of socialism.

12 June - The Institute for Foreign Students at the University of Leipzig is given the name Johann Gottfried Herder. Neues Deutschland reports that over 3000 students from more than [illegible]0 countries were prepared for study at East German institutions of higher education since 1953 at this Institute.

14 June - The Council of Ministers assigns coordinating responsibility for scientific and technical branches of the German Academy and the universities to the Research Council of the GDR.

13 August - East German police and soldiers begin sealing off the sector boundary between East and West Berlin preparatory to building the wall.

18 August - Regulation on evening study at universities and colleges.

21 August - The East Berlin city magistrate announces that students who have been studying at a West Berlin higher educational institution must register by 26 August.

18 September - An institute for the training of school directors is established in the Pedagogical College, Potsdam.

20 September - Prof. Ernst Bloch, well known East German philosopher, announces that he will not return to the GDR after his vacation in West Germany.

1961 (cont.)

5 October - The Technical College in Dresden is renamed Technical University and a new rector, Prof. Schwabe, is installed in office.

28 October - The Institute for Agriculture in Bernburg is renamed the College of Agriculture.

1962

13 January - The FDGB announces that its Fritz Heckert College in Bernau had, in the ten years of its existence, provided training for some 1,860 trade union officials, not counting correspondence study for 950 other functionaries; in addition, 130 trade unionists from Asia and Africa had received training.

16 January - The West German government announces that 1,606 scientists, including 513 from higher educational institutions (118 of them professors), fled East Germany since 1958.

18 January - The Council of Ministers assigns to the Research Council, working with the State Planning Commission and the State Secretariat for Research and Technology, the coordination and long-range planning of research tasks important to the East German economy.

22 January - Opening of the first correspondence course in the new criminology section of the Humboldt University Law School.

1962 (cont.)

7 February - Signing of a new Polish-East German cultural agreement providing for, among other things, the training of German teachers of Polish in Poland and of Polish teachers of German in the GDR.

23 March - Spokesmen for the Education Ministry and the State Secretariat for Higher and Technical Education state that 36,000 high school graduates are currently competing for 18,600 places in higher education.

25 April - A new rector, Prof. Walter Heinze, is named to head the College of Electro-Technology in Illmenau.

10 May - Dr. Stefan Doernberg is named to head the German Institute for Contemporary History, replacing Prof. Walter Bartel, who returns to Humboldt University.

15 June - Regulation on part-time evening and correspondence study in higher education.

4 July - In the course of modifying the composition of the Council of Ministers, Prof. Ernst-Joachim Giessmann (SED) replaces Girnus as State Secretary for Higher and Technical Education, and Dr. Herbert Weiz (SED) replaces the State Secretary for Research and Technology, Dr. Hans Frühauf.

1962 (cont.)

8 July - Dr. Girnus receives the thanks of the government for his service as state secretary and prepares to return to literary scholarship at Humboldt University.

12 July - Franz Dahlem reports in Neues Deutschland that the Workers' and Peasants' Faculties have fulfilled their purpose and will be discontinued at Humboldt University, Karl Marx University in Leipzig, the University of Greifswald, the College of Architecture in Weimar, and the College of Machine Construction in Chemnitz. Only the Martin Luther University in Halle and the College of Mining in Freiberg will continue to maintain Workers' and Peasants' Faculties in 1963.

3 September - The Dresden College of Transport, celebrating its tenth anniversary, is given the name Friedrich List.

6 September - A spokesman for the State Planning Commission urges a stronger contribution by economists to the problems of economic development and planning.

8 September - The Walter Ulbricht Academy of Political and Legal Sciences establishes a research group to work on the problem of the relationship between socialist leadership and the development of state loyalty.

1962 (cont.)

12 September - A delegation of the Conference of Rectors participates in a meeting of the Committee for the Study of Social Conditions in West Germany, contributing a study of higher education in both German states.

25 September - During a visit by Ulbricht to the Technical University of Dresden, the rector reports on the close relationship between the institution's educational and research tasks and the needs of East German industry.

27 September - Observing its eighth anniversary, the College of Film Art in Babelsberg announces that it has graduated 144 students.

28 September - The Friedrich Engels Military Academy graduates its first class of officers for the National People's Army.

1 October - A contract is signed between the University of Leipzig and the scientific and technical institutes of the Academy of Sciences providing for coordination of research investment, sharing of facilities, and opportunities for university students to work in the institutes.

3 November - Franz Dahlem underscores, in an article in *Neues Deutschland*, the need for new arrangements that will foster ever closer relations between higher education and the production process, especially for students in scientific and technical fields.

1962 (cont.)

17 December - A new regulation concerning student aid provides for stipends of 190 DM per month for university and college students, 160 DM per month for students in technical schools; additional amounts may be allowed for students whose work is outstanding.

21 December - A new regulation on admissions policy provides for more rigorous testing of applicants while maintaining a high proportion of workers' and peasants' children in enrollments.

1963

20 February - Decree on admission to higher and technical educational institutions, including evening and correspondence study.

5 March - Statement of governmental policy on selection of applicants for the Pedagogical College in Potsdam and for pedagogical institutes.

20 April - State Secretariat for Higher and Technical Education enunciates a policy on preparation of instructors in technical institutions.

14 June - The Council of Ministers adopts the new economic system of planning and direction of the economy.

1 September - Regulation on the status of industrial institutes at colleges and universities.

1963 (cont.)

30 October - The West German Conference of Rectors urges the relaxation of restraints on travel by GDR scholars on the basis of stated East German policy in this regard.

15 November - Delineation of the principles of operation of academic councils on philosophy at universities.

1964

13 March - Prof. Robert Havemann is relieved of his academic duties.

19 March - Meeting of the Politburo's ideological commission with social scientists to consider improvements in the performance of their educational tasks.

4 May - People's Chamber ratifies a new Youth Law.

14 May - Resolution on improving vocational education in the GDR.

2 July - The Politburo enunciates the main lines of a long-range economic plan for development of the GDR to 1970.

20 August - Requirement for the establishment of special classes in the mathematical and natural science faculties of higher educational institutions.

21 September - Death of Minister President Grotewohl at 70; he is replaced a few days later by Stoph.

6 October - A general amnesty is proclaimed; in December, Wolfgang Harich is released from prison as a result.

1965

12 February - The SED Central Committee discusses the law on a unified educational system.

25 February - Proclamation of the Law on the Unified Educational System; also the Law on the Contract System in the Socialist Economy.

27 March - Joint directive of the State Secretariat for Higher and Technical Education and the Ministry of Education changing the statute of the Pedagogical Institute in Karl-Marx-Stadt.

3 June - Promulgation of a regulation on the statute of the State Secretariat for Higher and Technical Education.

29 October - Prof. Lieselott Herfurth of the Technical University Dresden becomes the first woman to serve as rector of a German university.

3 December - Suicide of Erich Apel at the time of a new trade agreement with the USSR.

1966

10 January - The Institute of Social Science holds a Soviet-German colloquium on the influence of West German aggressiveness on NATO.

10 January - The University of Leipzig gives the Soviet writer, Sholokhov, an honorary doctorate; and 80 North Vietnamese students arrive in East Berlin to partake of educational offerings at East German universities.

1966 (cont.)

12 January - Hans Bentzien, Minister of Culture, is removed because of "serious errors" and replaced by Klaus Gysi, formerly of the Aufbau Verlag.

24 January - Prof. Peter Adolf Thiessen is named honorary chairman of the Research Council and is replaced as chairman by Prof. Max Steenbeck.

26 January - At its fourth congress, the Society for Dissemination of Scientific Knowledge is renamed "Urania" and reelects Prof. Dallmann as president.

1 April - The German Academy of Sciences announces the explusion of Prof. Robert Havemann.

4 April - Prof. Reiner Arlt is installed as rector of the Walter Ulbricht Academy in Potsdam, thus ending a more than two-year interregnum during which it was supposed that the office of rector had been abolished.

14 July - A group of students from Humboldt University is forbidden to accept an invitation to visit the University of Peking because of Chinese attacks on other socialist countries.

2 September - Minister President Stoph announces an expansion and reorganization of the Research Council in its role as an advisory body to the Council of Ministers.

1966 (cont.)

16 October - Humboldt University establishes a program of study in scientific information.

4 November - Walter Ulbricht gives the main address as the Technical University in Dresden celebrates the twentieth anniversary of its reopening.

22 December - Prof. Rosemarie Sachse takes office as rector of the College of Agriculture in Bernburg.

1967

2 February - Beginning of the fourth Conference on Higher Education with 600 delegates meeting in East Berlin to discuss the experience that they had gained in the year since the SED announced its "principles for further development of teaching and research in higher education in the GDR."

22 February - Conference in Leipzig at which 300 social scientists from GDR universities and colleges discuss Marxist-Leninist philosophy in the perspective of building socialism in the GDR.

31 March - State Council adopts 10 principles of youth policy.

7 June - Humboldt University's Institute of International Law defends the Arab position in the face of "Israeli aggression."

1967 (cont.)

13 June - State Secretary Giessmann meets with the GDR Council on Higher and Technical Education in Leipzig and announces that his office is developing plans for the "profile of higher education by 1980."

21 June - Humboldt University honors its founder, Wilhelm von Humboldt, on his 200th anniversary.

12 July - Death of Otto Nagel, president of the German Academy of Arts, at the age of 72.

19 July - State Secretary Giessmann announces special classes at the technical schools for employed women and mothers.

8 August - East German newspapers announce that 2,500 students from the Technical University Dresden and 1,200 from Karl Marx University Leipzig must participate in paramilitary exercises during the academic vacation.

11 August - Formation of Ministries of Higher and Technical Education and Science and Technology, replacing the former State Secretariats.

18 August - East German book production is reported to have reached a world record with 6.1 books per capita in 1966.

1 September - The Pedagogical Institute in Dresden is made a Pedagogical College.

8 September - An institute for military pedagogy is established at the Friedrich Engels Military Academy.

1967 (cont.)

12 September - State Secretary Giessmann chairs a newly constituted governmental commission on development of the technical schools.

26 September - Beginning of a joint Polish-East German meeting of Ministries of Education in Leipzig.

29 October - Prof. Leo Stern gives the principal address at the celebration of the 450th anniversary of the Reformation at the Martin Luther University in Halle-Wittenberg.

2 November - The Evangelical Student Community divides into separate organizations for East and West Germany.

13 November - The SED Party School Karl Marx begins a week of attention to electronic data processing.

1 December - Ulbricht announces to the People's Chamber the preparation of a new constitution for the GDR.

1968

22 February - The West German Conference of Rectors proposes to recognize the academic credentials conferred by the Technical Colleges of Magdeburg and Karl-Marx-Stadt.

6 April - 94.9 of eligible voters endorse the new GDR Constitution, which goes into effect on 9 April.

25 July - Prof. Hermann Klare is elected president of the German Academy of Sciences.

1968 (cont.)

3 August - A delegation from the GDR participates in the meeting of East European communist parties in Bratislava.

21 August - East German units join in the invasion of Czechoslovakia, an action that prompts numbers of East Germans, mostly young people and including students, to protest.

25 August - Two sons of the much-criticized Prof. Havemann are arrested in East Berlin for protesting the GDR's action in Czechoslovakia.

4 September - The Council on the Sciences of Culture and Art, called into being by Minister of Culture Gysi, holds its first meeting in East Berlin.

6 October - Minister Giessmann explains the changes in higher education resulting from the reform measures.

25 October - Several youths are sentenced in East Berlin for joining in the protest against government action in Czechoslovakia.

1969

20 January - The GDR State Council approves the draft of a resolution for further implementation of the third Higher Educational Reform and invites discussion in academic and public circles.

11 February - Deputy Minister of Culture Horst Brasch is relieved of his post; his son had protested

1969 (cont.)

the invasion of Czechoslovakia, been sentenced to prison, and then released.

3 April - The State Council favors the further implementation of the Higher Educational Reform.

29 April - A College of Engineering is established in Dresden.

30 May - The Institute for Social Sciences of the SED Central Committee forms a Scientific Council for Research in Philosophy under Prof. Alfred Kosing.

12 June - The Walter Ulbricht Academy in Potsdam establishes a Council for Research in Foreign Policy.

24 June - The Institute for Social Sciences forms a Scientific Council for Research on Imperialism under Prof. Horst Hemberger. A similar Council for Sociological Research is established a few days later.

4 July - The SED Institute for Marxism-Leninism establishes a Scientific Council for Research on Marx and Engels under Prof. Rolf Dlubek.

2 September - A College of Engineering is founded in Zittau.

8 September - The Research Council holds its fourth plenary meeting.

25 September - The German Academy of Sciences holds a special meeting in connection with the impending 20th anniversary of the founding of the GDR.

1970

12 January - Opening of an international conference in East Berlin, sponsored by Humboldt University, the Technical University Dresden, and the College of Economics in Karlshorst, and devoted to electronic data processing in higher education.

19 January - Prof. Otto Reinhold, director of the SED Institute for Social Sciences, and Prof. GÜnter Heyden, director of the SED Institute for Marxism-Leninism, head an East German delegation to an international conference in Moscow on the role of Leninism in the present era.

2 March - The school for training of political cadre, maintained by the Ministry of National Defense, is given the status of a college.

12 March - The State Council considers implementation of a plan to reform the academies.

19 March - Meeting of Chancellor Brandt and Minister President Stoph in Erfurt.

15 June - 60 legal scholars from 16 countries participate in a scholarly meeting in Potsdam occasioned by the 25th anniversary of the Potsdam Agreement.

23 August - Scholars from 25 countries participate in the International Hegel Congress in East Berlin.

1970 (cont.)

31 August - The Walter Ulbricht Academy in Potsdam opens its first two-year program of study for leaders in central and local state offices.

14 September - East Berlin is the site of the fifth Conference of Ministers of Higher Education in Socialist Countries.

15 September - Prof. Gerhard Neuner is named president of the new Academy of Pedagogical Sciences in East Berlin.

16 September - Prof. Hans Joachim Böhme is named Minister of Higher and Technical Education, replacing Giessmann who asked to be relieved for reasons of health.

8 December - Neues Deutschland carries the State Council's conclusions about further development of medical research and scholarly organization.

Appendix E

DOCUMENTS

(Limitations of space are such that only a few documentary items can be included in this volume. Because of its great importance and its currency, I have chosen items that bear directly on the third higher educational reform (see chapter II). There are of course few documentary sources on East German higher education for any period in English; but at least for the period up to 1965 we have the excellent collection compiled by Baske and Engelbert, Zwei Jahrzehnte Bildungspolitik in der Sowjetzone Deutschlands. However, that collection closed precisely with the stage at which a new phase of economic planning began in the GDR, a phase which brought with it concerted attention to education as an element of economic projection. The principal features of this process, so far as it implicated higher education, are displayed in the three documents translated below.)

I. Law on the Integrated Socialist Educational System,* as adopted by the People's Chamber of the German Democratic Republic on 25 February 1965 and proclaimed on the same date by Walter Ulbricht as chairman of the Council of State.

Part VI

Technical Schools, Universities and Colleges

Section I

Engineering and Technical Schools

41

(1) Engineering and technical schools are institutions of higher special education at which scientific-technical and economic specialists for industry, agriculture, the building industry, trade, transport and the communications system, public instruction and culture, the health service and other fields of social life are trained.

(2) Engineering and technical schools within the meaning of this law are institutions listed in the technical school register of the German Democratic Republic. The technical school register is kept by the State Secretariat for Higher and Technical Education. It also gives information about the subordination of the engineering and technical schools.

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*Only Article VI is reprinted here, as it deals entirely with higher education; other clauses bearing on the subject are mentioned in the text. The extract is taken from Education and Training in the German Democratic Republic (Berlin: Staatsverlag der DDR, 1966), pp. 103-113.

(1) The content and level of training and the character of subjects at the engineering and technical schools is determined by the main trends of the technical revolution, the perspectives of the leading branches of the national economy and the further social needs.

(2) The managers of the central state and economic organs are responsible for drawing up the vocational descriptions. The state secretary for higher and technical education issues principles for this and declares the vocational descriptions to be binding.

(3) The State Secretariat for Higher and Technical Education determines the demands on basic instruction. It is responsible for the study plans and instructional materials in the general subjects, in Marxism-Leninism and in the basic mathematics and natural science subjects.

(4) The engineering and technical schools work out special education study plans together with representatives of science, practice and social organizations on the basis of the principles issued by the state secretary for higher and technical education under the responsibility of the state and economic organs to which the engineering and technical schools are subordinate. They are confirmed by the state secretary for higher and technical education.

(5) Working women are to be supported by various measures in their efforts to graduate from engineering or technical schools. Forms of partial and correspondence study are to be applied in particular.

(1) Students are to be enabled through their training to independently acquire new perceptions of science and technology in their special field and in related fields and apply them in practice.

(2) The students are to learn to join socialist labour teams and guide and promote socialist joint work. They are to be acquainted with the up-to-date principles and methods of socialist management.

(3) Students are to be given a knowledge of Marxism-Leninism which meets the demands of social practice.

(4) General education is to be extended and deepened especially in mathematics and the natural sciences. Instruction in the German language and literature is to be continued. The training in Russian and in a second foreign language is to enable the students to use the foreign language literature of their special field and to make themselves understood on technical questions in the foreign language. The physical efficiency and sports interest of the students is to be raised and their health strengthened through compulsory sport instruction and competitions.

(5) The basic instruction concentrates on mathematics, the natural sciences, technology, technique and economics.

(6) The special training gives the knowledge, skill and abilities in the special fields which enables the graduates to become effective in practice quickly.

(7) The scientific-productive activity of the students as a part of their training is to connect theory and practice with each other organically.

44

(1) Engineers and engineering economists are trained in the engineering schools.

(2) At the technical and engineering schools in the field of agriculture the students are to be made acquainted with the latest knowledge of agrarian science, the intensification and mechanization of agricultural production and with the economics, planning and management of socialist agricultural enterprises and the transition to industrial methods of production.

(3) Other scientific technical schools train economists for finance, industry, the building industry, domestic and foreign trade, and specialists for other fields of social life.

(4) At the officer schools of the National People's Army and the other armed forces a part of the graduates simultaneously qualify themselves in a civil vocation corresponding to the completion of a technical school.

45

(1) Every citizen of the German Democratic Republic has the right to apply for study at an engineering or technical school.

(2) Study at an engineering or technical school presupposes a completed secondary school education, the skilled worker's certificate in a field corresponding with the subject to be studied and, as a rule, practical experience as a skilled worker.

(3) The engineering or technical school decides on the admission to study on the basis of the performances and vocational experience of the candidates. The social structure of the population must be considered. Aptitude tests may be given.

46

(1) The training at engineering and technical schools takes place in direct, correspondence and evening study.

(2) Students in correspondence and evening study receive legally fixed working time privileges.

(3) The instructional materials for correspondence and evening study are to be worked out in accordance with the special conditions of these forms of study.

(4) The associations of nationally-owned enterprises, enterprises and institutions are obliged to win working people for study on the basis of the national economic plan, promote them during the study and make enterprise facilities available for study.

47

(1) The students of engineering and technical schools work responsibly to satisfy the educational and training objectives and make their own contribution to socialist education in the collective. They mutually promote themselves in socialist team work.

(2) Students make use of their right to take part in shaping the education and training through their social

organization, the Free German Youth. The Free German Youth promotes the initiative of the students in their study and the development of a lively intellectual-cultural life at the technical school.

(3) The directors of the technical schools and the subject department heads are obliged to cooperate with the Free German Youth. They promote all forms of independent activity of the students, especially the competitions of the students in the fields of science, culture and sport.

48

(1) Regular performance tests and examinations are carried through to prove the level of training reached.

(2) Study at an engineering or technical school is concluded by a state examination. It entitles the graduate to bear the vocational title corresponding with the special field.

(3) The students are to be encouraged to begin their activity at a place where the interests of society require it after the completion of their study.

49

(1) College maturity is attained with the successfully ended study at an engineering or technical school.

(2) The best and most talented graduates or students are to be won for college study and delegated to the colleges. College study in the same or related special

field may be shortened by crediting them with performances in certain subjects.

(3) The details are arranged by the State Secretary for Higher and Technical Education.

Section II

Art (Technical) Schools

50

(1) Art (technical) schools train socialist artists and people dealing with the arts in close connection with artistic practice. The training is determined by the demands resulting from the continuation of the socialist cultural revolution.

(2) The orchestra and choir schools in which special instruction in the field of music is given, are connected with the conservatories of music.

(3) Admission to study at art schools requires the completion of secondary school, and admission to schools of applied art an additional completed vocational training. Artistic talent is to be proved.

(4) Paragraphs 46, 47 and 48 are valid analogously.

Section III

Technical School Teachers

51

(1) Technical school teachers have a high responsibility

for the education and instruction of universally developed socialist experts. They have the duty of bringing about a close connection with practice. The technical school teachers cooperate in important tasks in enterprises and institutions.

(2) The growing significance of the educational and training work of the technical school teachers for the development of socialist society requires the support, promotion and recognition of their activity by all state and economic organs and social organizations.

(3) It is the most important task of the technical school teachers to train the students according to up-to-date scientific knowledge and the latest practical experiences and educate them to be socialist personalities. For this purpose they must have a great knowledge and skill in their special field and a thorough knowledge of Marxism-Leninism and be a model in their behaviour.

(4) Technical school teachers have the right and duty to help to determine the content, methods and the organization of technical school instruction.

(5) The enterprises and institutions have the duty to support the technical school teachers in the study of scientific-technical progress and the development trends in the national economy and in the training and education of the students.

(6) As a rule, the activity as a technical school teacher presupposes a completed college study, several years of practical activity and a pedagogic training.

Section IV

Universities and Colleges

52

(1) The universities and colleges of the German Democratic Republic have to train and educate scientifically highly qualified and socialist conscious personalities who are able and ready to deliberately shape the process of the increasingly deeper penetration of production, culture and other fields of socialist society by latest perceptions of science and take over responsible activities.

(2) Education at the universities and colleges is determined by the requirements of science, the national economy and society. It builds on the level of the extended secondary school. It takes place in direct, correspondence and evening study.

53

(1) The principle of the unity of teaching and education applies to training in the universities and colleges. It centres around the education to independent scientific thinking, to a high work and study morality, to joint action in the socialist collective and to the consolidation of a socialist state consciousness. The laws of the sciences and scientific methods are the essential content of instruction.

The application of mathematical methods is to be extended to all sciences step by step according to their specific peculiarities.

(2) The relation of basic and special training in the individual subjects is to be so shaped, according to scientific and national economic requirements, that the student is able in his future activity to pursue scientific developments independently and make himself familiar with new problems. Special training is to be closely connected with basic training and practice. It serves to prepare the students for their later vocational activity and especially teaches methods of applying scientific knowledge. Students are to be made acquainted with the modern principles and methods of socialist management. A part of the special instruction is to be shifted step by step to practice, differentiated according to the individual subject.

(3) The study of Marxism-Leninism is an essential part of a college education. It deepens and strengthens the socialist consciousness of the students and enables them to creatively apply the general laws of development of nature, society and human thinking in life.

(4) Compulsory sport instruction contributes to the preservation of the health and the raising of the physical and psychic efficiency of the students and promotes their independent sports activity. The work of the college sport clubs is to be promoted by the heads of the universities, colleges and faculties.

(5) The continuation of instruction in Russian and a second foreign language is to enable the students to follow up the foreign language literature of their special field and make themselves understood on technical questions in the foreign language.

(6) Content, forms and methods of training are constantly to be brought into accord with the latest state of science, the development of the national economy and the other fields of social life.

The college curricula are to be so drafted that the students have sufficient time for self-study and for cooperation in research projects. Individual study plans are to be developed for especially talented students and other forms of promotion are to be introduced.

54

(1) The unity of theory and practice holds for the entire work in the universities and colleges. It is effected according to the peculiarities of the individual subjects. The study sections are in practice to be organically fitted into the course of instruction.

(2) On the basis of the development of science and technology, the national economy, culture and other social requirements, the demands on the scientific forces are to be determined by those state and economic organs competent for the individual spheres. The training programs are jointly worked out on this basis by scientists and representatives of practice under the responsibility of the State Secretariat for Higher and Technical Education.

55

(1) The unity of teaching and research holds for the entire work in the universities and colleges.

The universities and colleges are important centres of research. They make an outstanding contribution to the development of the sciences and thereby at the same time assure a training on the highest scientific level.

(2) Research in the universities and colleges is to be so organized that, on the basis of the plan of the sciences,

-- scientific and national economic focal tasks are solved;
-- various scientific disciplines work together and socialist joint work between the universities or colleges and social practice is developed.

(3) The cooperative relations between the universities and colleges and the associations of nationally-owned enterprises, the competent state and economic organs and the academies are pre-eminently to be directed to long-term research projects. Contractual research is to be so developed that the research capacity of the universities and colleges is used for the solution of national economic focal tasks and that the universities and colleges have a material interest in it.

(4) Students are to be involved in the research work of the institutes in accordance with their abilities. Their scientific-productive activity is to serve the solution of tasks important for science and the national economy and train them for independent scientific work.

56

(1) Every citizen of the German Democratic Republic

having met the college entrance requirements can apply for admission to a university or college.

(2) The admission to college study is granted by the universities and colleges on the basis of state plans in accordance with the performance principle, taking into consideration the social structure of the population. Aptitude tests may be given.

57

(1) Correspondence and evening study gives all citizens the opportunity to complete college study without interrupting their vocational activity. Students in correspondence and evening study are granted legally fixed work time privileges.

(2) Efforts are to be made to standardize basic instruction in related subjects, partly shift the teaching of basic sciences to enterprise branches in the form of evening study and adapt the methods of instruction to correspondence study.

(3) Enterprises and institutions whose co-workers begin a correspondence or evening study are obliged to conclude promotion contracts with the students and support them during their study. The advancement of women in correspondence or evening study is a special duty of the enterprises and institutions.

58

(1) University and college students themselves bear a high responsibility for their education and training.

They take an active part in shaping the educational and training process, research work and social life at the universities and colleges. They have a special duty to develop a conscious study discipline.

(2) Students make use of their right of co-determination through their social organization, the Free German Youth. The representatives of the Free German Youth take part in the work of the leading bodies of the universities and colleges with a seat and vote.

(3) The rectors of the universities and colleges and the deans of the faculties are obliged to cooperate with the Free German Youth. They promote such forms of student scientific activity as students' circles, student research groups and student emulation.

59

(1) During the study performance checks and examinations are carried through. They are to check the knowledge acquired by the students, the ability to think scientifically and to apply theoretical knowledge to practical problems.

(2) The study is concluded by a state examination. A certificate is issued which entitles the graduate to bear the appropriate academic degree or vocational title.

60

(1) Students are to be urged to start their activity after concluding their studies at a place where they best serve the all-round development of the German Democratic

Republic with their knowledge and ability.

(2) The state and economic organs are obliged to so prepare the employment of college graduates that they are given posts for their future activity one year before the conclusion of their studies at the latest and can begin work corresponding to their performances after the final examination.

61

(1) The rapid development of science and the scientific penetration of all spheres of socialist society require a planned and proportional increase in the proportion of scientists with higher academic degrees in the scientific institutions and in the educational facilities, in the national economy, culture, the health service and in the state and economic organs.

(2) The educational and training objective for scientific cadres is to be determined according to the new and foreseeable scientific national economic and social requirements. The young scientists are to receive extensive special knowledge and be educated especially in Marxist philosophy and in modern methods of planning and guiding scientific work.

(3) The young scientists must be selected at an early date. New recruits must be promoted purposefully through individual measures, through the concentration of training on especially suitable institutes and the forming of groups of young graduates and through the development

of socialist team work.

Scientific scholarship is to be increasingly used in the education of young scientists.

(4) The state secretary for higher and technical education issues the principles for the education of young scientists and for the awarding of academic degrees.

Section V

Art Colleges

62

(1) Study at art colleges is determined by the requirements resulting from the continuation of the socialist cultural revolution and the main development trends of the national economy.

The acquisition and creative application of socialist realism and the cultivation of the classical humanist heritage are main principles of training.

(2) The colleges in the fields of art and literature have the task of training artists who are able to create socialist works of art of high quality and have a share in determining the international level through outstanding soloist and ensemble performances.

(3) Admission to colleges of pictorial and applied art requires the school-leaving examination certificate and a vocational training, that for the study of histrionic art and study in the faculties of school music instruction, opera production and sound engineering the school-leaving

examination certificate. Prerequisite for study at other art colleges is the completion of secondary school. Artistic talent is to be proved for study at an art college.

(4) The colleges of pictorial and applied art, industrial design, graphic and book production orient themselves on the following main points:

Painting, plastic art including building industrial tasks and handicraft products of high quality, industrial design for the development of patterns ripe for production which are highly useful and of a beauty for the raising of world market competitiveness, economic publicity, book graphic art and layout.

Training in applied art takes place in constant direct connection with production practice.

(5) Young artists with outstanding talent can be especially promoted by the art colleges (training for college lectureship) after completing their study.

Artists working in industry, building and trade are to be enabled to take a diploma in direct, correspondence or external study.

(6) Training in the art colleges is carried through on the basis of study plans confirmed by the minister of culture.

(7) The principles for college education are to be applied analogously.

Section VI

College Teachers

63

(1) To be a college teacher is a high honour for a scientist of the German Democratic Republic. Through his creative work in educating and instructing students and young scientists and in research he promotes the development of science, the national economy, the educational system, culture and all other fields of socialist society.

(2) College teachers especially have the right and duty to train students and young scientists on the basis of this law in a socialist manner, work out the study plans at the universities and colleges, have a responsible share in the planning and guiding of scientific work and cooperate in the practical application of science.

64

(1) Professors and lecturers are appointed by the State Secretary for Higher and Technical Education.

(2) Professors and lecturers in art are appointed by the minister of culture. The appointment of the professors must be confirmed by the State Secretary for Higher and Technical Education.

(3) Persons may be appointed college teachers who have proved their fitness for creative scientific work and for the education and instruction of students and young scientists, who have practical experience in their special field and are moral and political models. Scientists from social

practice and from the research institutes are to be won in greater numbers for positions as college teachers.

Section VII

Continued Education of College and Technical School Graduates

65

(1) The continued education of college and technical school graduates serves to deepen the knowledge and abilities in the foundations of mathematics, natural and social sciences and to impart special knowledge in the special field and in related fields as well as knowledge and skill in the planning, guiding and organizing of social life, especially science and technology.

(2) The continued education of college and technical school graduates includes partial, special and supplementary study and the attendance of colleges and technical schools as guest listeners. Other forms are work in scientific societies, the Chamber of Technology and participation in qualification courses.

(3) Graduates of colleges and technical schools are obliged to acquire the necessary knowledge and experiences for their activity and to continue their scientific education constantly. The heads of state and economic organs, enterprises and institutions are responsible for the continued education of the college and technical school graduates active in their spheres of influence. They are to determine the necessary measures in agreement with the

colleges and technical schools, the Chamber of Technology and scientific societies.

(4) Colleges and technical schools are obliged to make scientific perceptions and experiences accessible to a large circle of college and technical school graduates by means of scientific events and meetings of graduates.

(5) Successful completion of a form of continued education in universities, colleges and technical schools is attested by a certificate.

/Addendum, separately paged by letter./

II. "Principles for the Further Development of Teaching and Research at Institutions of Higher Education in the GDR."*

The implementation of the program of the Socialist Unity Party, adopted at the Sixth Party Congress, the further execution of the law on the integrated socialist educational system within the comprehensive construction of socialism in the GDR, and the development of science, technology, and the economy present increased demands on the education and training of students and on the involvement of higher educational research capacities in the performance of tasks facing the GDR by 1970 or by 1980. In the continuous effectuation of higher educational and scientific policies of the party and government, profound changes are called for in training and socialist education, in research, and in the leadership and organization of universities and colleges.

The effectuation of complex socialist rationalization presents new assignments for training, education, and research. At the universities and colleges those cadres are to be trained and educated who are able to resolve economic tasks and problems of complex socialist rationalization on a scientific basis and in collaboration with the workers. Higher education has, by its design of research work, to fashion the preconditions and an adequate scientific headstart for complex socialist rationalization in the branches of the economy.

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*Extract from the revised version, dated 1 December 1966, as prepared by an editorial commission of the State Secretariat for Higher and Technical Education, as reprinted in Joachim H. Knoll and Horst Siebert: _Erwachsenenbildung, Erwachsenenqualifizierung_ (Heidelberg: Quelle & Meyer, 1968), pp. 152-159.

Higher education also has large responsibility for planning the entire work, organization, and financing in the institutions themselves so as to increase efficiency and respect the law of economy of the time.

The essence of the changes needed in the institutions of the GDR is to concentrate and profile teaching and research according to prognoses on the needs of the economy, science, and social development so that a scientific headstart is achieved, practically useful research findings are available faster, and socialist cadres are trained to use broad scientific knowledge and to work creatively and with party loyalty for the socialist society.

The further development of training, socialist education, and research at GDR institutions of higher education, based on the cooperation and joint responsibility of professors, scientific helpers, and students, is a sign of the superiority of socialist higher education in the GDR over that of West Germany.

The systematic effectuation of projected changes in GDR higher education requires an intensive and purposeful politico-ideological direction from the State Secretariat for Higher and Technical Education, the administration of universities and colleges, the party organizations in higher education, the FDGB, and the FDJ. Through the Scientific Union, above all, the persons involved in scholarly institutions will participate in the planning and direction of scientific work and in the fulfillment of the assigned tasks.

1. Training and Education of Students

Academic study is to be developed further on the basis of the law on the integrated socialist educational system and on the principle of the unity of training and education. Professors and their assistants educate students to be cultivated socialist personalities. Great demands will be placed on the political and moral conduct of the students, as well as on their professional abilities. All instructors in higher education are responsible for politico-ideological education of students.

Professors have a high degree of responsibility for:

- education of students to a sense of patriotism, recognition of the leading role of the working class and its party, and a sense of duty and responsibility toward socialist society,
- political, philosophical, and professional training of students to enable them to recognize the laws of social development and, therewith, the policies of party and government so as to understand their conduct,
- the specialized training of students to enable them to absorb and use scientific knowledge creatively in their future work for the development of productive forces, science, and socialist society,

- education of students in the meaning of proletarian internationalism and especially toward friendship with the Soviet Union,
- education of students for energetic struggle against signs of bourgeois ideology and decadence, for socialist behavior, and for preservation of the laws of socialist ethics and morality,
- education of students to respect the working man, to socially useful work, and to readiness to make great demands on themselves.

This great educational and scientific task demands that professors have more possibilities to become acquainted with Marxism-Leninism and that scientific assistants be included in an obligatory system of continuing education in Marxism-Leninism.

The principle of the unity of education and training makes much greater demands on the responsibility of students themselves, on their work discipline and self-reliance, on their involvement in solving practical problems of science, and on their inclusion in socialist collaborative work.

These goals require close and comradely cooperation of professors with all social organizations operating in institutions of higher education.

Students take seriously their right and duty to join in the design of the process of education and training by participating in the social organizations, the FDJ, and joint efforts with the faculty. In the FDJ collective, through a joining of theory and practice, through creative scholarly activity, and through participation of all students in the competition of students and young scholars, their socialist thought and conduct will be formed.

On the basis of the educational level of the extended polytechnical high school, the students are to be trained in broad social scientific, mathematical-natural scientific, and technical-economic fundamentals closely tied to practice.

Depending on the requirements of individual disciplines and of educational economy, a program of study lasts four or five years. The duration of particular phases of training will be determined by the content and amount of material to be covered in particular professional fields.

Admissions figures must correspond to the integration of science, the method of translating scientific knowledge into practice, and the specialization of science.

Accordingly, and on the strength of past experience, the program of study in higher education will be divided into several related phases: basic study; specialized study; and special or research study.

A thorough Marxist-Leninist training of students occurs throughout the program. It is to be geared in content and method to the character of the phase of study. It must accord with the high demands placed by society on the political cultivation, theoretical conviction, intellectual character, and moral conduct of our intelligentsia.

1. Basic study has the assignment:

- to convey and deepen general social scientific and natural scientific, as well as technical, fundamentals,

- to promote the acquisition of rational methods of independent scientific work,
- to enable students to evaluate technical literature in other languages and equip them for oral understanding of technical questions in Russian and a second modern foreign language,
- to strengthen the willingness and ability to defend the GDR and to provide military and athletic preparation.

Study plans for the basic program are approved by the State Secretariat for Higher and Technical Education and may not exceed 32 hours a week.

Study plans for teacher training are approved by the Minister of Education.

After the basic program a test is given as prerequisite for moving to specialized study.

2. Specialized study has the assignment:

- to continue the academic program in differentiated fashion for the individual specialties.
- to communicate further theoretical fundamentals and to acquaint students with specialized problems of mathematical-natural scientific and technical, social scientific, and economic fields,
- to teach the methodology of scholarly work in the specialty,
- to enable results of scholarship to be applied to practice,
- to develop the ability for independent creative work.

Specialized study includes a varied program of practical work of some duration. The specialized fields are to be set in terms of prospective needs of the economy and society. The State Secretariat approves specialized study plans, making a part obligatory yet also offering possibilities for independent study and creative work by students. A main examination concludes the specialized study program with a certificate.

Then comes the transition to special or research study, depending on the state plan and the achievements and abilities of the students.

3. Special study has the assignment:

- to communicate knowledge of the status of scholarship and its application in specialized fields,
- to assure independent creative work by students under the direction of professors and thus involve students in research activity,
- to equip for work in a special practical field.

Study plans for special study are approved by the dean, including not only obligatory classes but also electives chosen by students in accordance with their future activity, scientific interests, and talents.

Special study lasts for one year and can be extended to a total of two years in certain scientific fields.

The program concludes with defense of the diploma-thesis and the granting of the diploma.

After the main examination, the diploma of the faculty can also be earned in evening or correspondence study.

4. Research study has the assignment:

- to train highly qualified cadres according to plan, who will participate in shaping the development of science, production, and society.

In research study the students carry out independent contributions to the development of science and technology, according to planning projections. In this time they acquire teaching abilities.

Research study lasts two to three years.

Students are admitted to research study after the main examination if they have shown exceptional achievements and high political-moral qualities in terms of the state plans and are recommended by the social organizations.

The program of research study concludes with a successful defense of the dissertation and granting of the doctoral degree in some branch of scholarship.

Structuring academic study according to these principles requires adjustment of content and method of training to the stage of development reached by the student, a profound redesign of study plans and teaching programs, and the preparation of new textbooks and instructional materials.

For those professionally employed, the possibility exists to obtain the doctorate by presenting a scholarly work and fulfilling the conditions laid down in the order on granting of degrees. Preparations therefor can be accomplished either in the planned or the exceptional form of candidacy.

As a specific form of training in universities and colleges of the GDR, correspondence study has an important place in the integrated socialist educational system.

The further development of teaching and research, according to social and scholarly needs, demands changes in correspondence study that do justice to the conditions of such study. Proceeding from the bases contained in the principles and from experience to date, the design of content and method in correspondence study is to be brought into line with the pedagogy of adult education.

As the basic, specialized, and special programs of study are redetermined for correspondence study, the duration of training is to be reset. The basic study program is to be unified for related fields of specialization.

Instructional materials are to be redesigned in content and method in accordance with the latest scholarly knowledge.

The development of society, its planning and direction, and the rapid growth in scientific knowledge in all fields require a systematic continuing education. It must be built systematically and provide for communication of newest scholarly findings. The state enterprises and firms, the scientific-technical centers, and scientific societies have the main responsibility in this.

The institutions of continuing education are to be developed as organic parts of the educational system at universities and colleges and must be considered in the planning and allocation of resources. They contribute to the communication of new knowledge in science and technology and reinforce scholars and practitioners in the building of socialism, the planned effectuation of the technological revolution, and the complex socialist rationalization.

To assure a systematic continuing education, the State Secretariat for Higher and Technical Education, the central organs, leading economic entities, scholarly associations, and the social organizations work closely together in the planning, preparation, and execution of measures bearing on continuing education.

III. Fourth Conference on Higher Education: The Tasks of Universities and Institutions of Higher Education in the Integrated Educational System of Socialist Society, 2/3 February, 1967.

"Introduction" by Prof. Ernst Joachim Giessmann, State Secretary for Higher and Technical Education.

The Fourth Conference on Higher Education is an important event in the educational system of our socialist society. It assessed developments that occurred after the Sixth Party Congress of the Socialist Unity Party of Germany and determined the tasks arising for higher education out of the over-all development of the German Democratic Republic toward the realization of socialism.

The "Principles for Further Development of Teaching and Research at Institutions of Higher Education in the German Democratic Republic," the program for the systematic implementation of the Law on the Integrated Socialist Education System in the realm of higher education, was unanimously endorsed by the Conference.

The Fourth Conference on Higher Education was a forum for discussing the political and intellectual problems of our times. It revealed the determination of all elements of higher education to strengthen the sovereign socialist German Democratic Republic in every way.

The materials of the Conference indicate the direction for the execution of the next tasks in our socialist higher educational system. The course of the Fourth Conference on Higher Education demonstrated the agreement of colleagues and students in the institutions of higher education with the goals of the party and the government.

"Conclusion" by Prof. Kurt Hager, Member of the Politburo and Secretary of the Central Committee of the SED.

Ladies and Gentlemen, Friends and Comrades!

The Fourth Conference on Higher Education of the GDR has particular importance as the high point and conclusion of the discussion of the "Principles for Further Development of Teaching and Research at Institutions of Higher Education in the German Democratic Republic." It was also an important contribution to the great discussion now occurring in preparation for the Seventh Party Congress of the SED on developmental problems in the overall construction of socialism. We place great value on this contribution.

It is a great pleasure for me to convey to you and all faculty, students, and staff of the universities and colleges of the GDR, the warm greetings and thanks of the Central Committee of the Socialist Unity Party of Germany and its First Secretary, Comrade Walter Ulbricht, for the work accomplished in the formation of our socialist higher educational system.

It is not easy to summarize the results of this interesting and problematical two-day meeting and quite impossible to evaluate all contributions in the way they deserve. I will therefore confine myself to the most important issues.

First: We can appreciate this Fourth Conference on Higher Education as a unanimous expression of loyalty to our sovereign socialist German Democratic Republic. The address by Manfred Römer, student at the Technical College "Carl Schorlemmer," and other contributions to the discussion express the determination to protect and strengthen our socialist fatherland, Germany's first peaceable state, and to defend the GDR against all instrusions and attacks. The task now is to infuse this spirit, this determination, into the universities and colleges, and to effectuate it in all work, in teaching and training, in learning and research.

One thing is certain, my friends: we are traversing the correct path in the overall building of socialism, the path that is a logical conclusion from social laws and the teachings of German history. We are taking this path in brotherly alliance with the Soviet Union and the Communist Party of the Soviet Union, and also in close friendship with the other socialist countries. It is our aim constantly to strengthen cooperation with them in the fields of science and higher education as well as in all other areas.

The Committee on Arrangements for the Fiftieth Anniversary of the Great Socialist October Revolution, chaired by Comrade Walter Ulbricht, has recently addressed to all citizens of the GDR and to all peace-loving people in

West Germany a declaration of appreciation for the historic achievements of the Soviet Communist Party and the Soviet People. In the five decades since the victory of the Great Socialist October Revolution, the socialist system of social organization has proved itself many times over in spite of all difficulties and challenges, in spite of incredibly complicated conditions. It is the social system in which the working class exercises power in alliance with the peasants, in which the exploitation of man by man is eliminated, in which peace, social security, brotherhood, and humanity are the guiding principles. Some would have it that the history of socialism consists of a series of mistakes; in that fashion they merely associate themselves with the slanders of anticommunist propaganda of the enemies of socialism and communism. Yet neither imperialist aggression nor anticommunist propaganda has been able to prevent the Soviet Union from becoming the strongest and invincible economic, political, military, and cultural progressive power in the world, the power with which we are united in undying friendship.

Our own history shows that socialism corresponds to the vital interests of the people. The GDR has become a sovereign socialist state. It has demonstrated that the German people can reject imperialism and militarism and that the working people are capable of determining their own history and their own social order. Our system of higher education is at once a basic ingredient of this new socialist order and a crucial element in its further advancement.

Secondly, the Fourth Conference on Higher Education proves that we have made progress in our universities and colleges since the Sixth Party Congress and the adoption of the SED program. We see all around us this process of steady progress, of rising momentum. We see this in industry and agriculture, in the operation of the state, in the field of education and culture, and in the modification of men's thinking and social relations. We can all be proud of these great successes and advances. On this basis, fashioned in years past by all working people of our republic and therewith also by members of the academic community, we can now procede with the building of our house until socialism is fully attained.

Creative cooperation in the further development of socialist higher education is unquestionably a task full of responsibility but also a rewarding task for every scholar. It indicates the high sense of responsibility, deep understanding for the new tasks, and readiness and determination to collaborate in their execution, that numerous speakers of this conference, academic senates and councils, scientific committees, and many institute collectives have not only agreed to the "Principles" but have also contributed many suggestions for their effectuation. All these suggestions for the systematic execution of the program must be carefully evaluated in order to find the best solutions.

Thirdly, the Fourth Conference on Higher Education has made clear that increasing importance in the process of building socialism attaches to the training of students and young scholars, the further training of scientific manpower active in their vocations, and the research function of universities and colleges.

Comrade Giessmann, State Secretary for Higher and Technical Education, has explained in his address that the necessity for further development of higher education arises out of the laws of our social development. I wish to underscore this idea. Greater challenges will present themselves to higher education in the years to come out of the implementation of the new economic system of planning and direction, the scientific-technical revolution and its rationalization, the further development of social relations and cultural life, and the achievement of an educated socialist nation.

At the fourteenth meeting of the SED Central Committee Walter Ulbricht emphasized the importance of treating all measures and tasks from the standpoint of the development of a socialist system of society in its totality. Prof. Wolter, Prof. Schick, and other contributors to the discussion have concerned themselves in an interesting way with problems of prediction in higher education, with preparations for the future, and have offered valuable suggestions. The coordination of higher educational development with the requirements of multi-faceted development of socialist society places exceptionally heavy demands on the process of prediction and resulting long-range planning.

When we start with the realization that students normally spend five years in higher education, it becomes clear that today's guidelines for education and training and the determination of numbers of annual matriculations in individual disciplines have great influence on overall social development and on the future activities of the students. And every instructor must realize that he has to give his present students the equipment with which they will be able beyond the end of this century to keep pace with the development of science and technology and, indeed, to contribute to this development. This requires that we think as clearly as possible about the picture the future will present to us and that, as we constantly seek to complete this picture, we draw from it conclusions about the educational process. This applies particularly to such fields as computer technology and data processing, without which scientific work and direction are conceivable neither today nor in the future.

In the Council of Humboldt University two young scientists -- a mathematician and an economist -- emphasized effectively that it is immediately necessary to make training in computer technology and electronic data processing a fixed element of all fields of specialization. This demand applies to all universities and colleges and is in agreement with the conclusions of the SED Central Committee and the Council of Ministers.

It is thus no passing fancy, no temporary state of affairs, that we concern ourselves ever more profoundly with prediction and with long-range perspective on social development. The future belongs to socialism. It is clear that higher education must adapt itself to this fact in every way if it is to play its role in socialist society. I am thoroughly in agreement with Rector Drefahl that the effectuation of the "Principles" involves the determination of a substantial portion of our future.

Fourthly, this Conference has revealed that the "Principles for Further Development of Teaching and Research at Institutions of Higher Education in the German Democratic Republic" will be realized only in that degree to which we succeed in developing in its many facets socialist collaboration in universities and colleges, whether in the form of complex research through the formation of sections, whether through the interaction of various social science disciplines in the interpretation of Marxism-Leninism, or whether in some other fashion. Collaborative work corresponds to the nature of socialism and is the great force making it possible for us to accomplish all of the tasks which we set for ourselves. Prof. Fricke and other speakers have referred to this. Collaborative work is not dependent upon fully developed socialists but is, as practice demonstrates, the best way to develop socialist personalities and new social relations characterized by comradely cooperation and reciprocal assistance.

The constantly growing demands on the level of training, the problem of the integration of separate scientific fields, the improvement of efficiency in academic work, and finally also the gaining of necessary time for independent study can only be taken in hand effectively when education and training are developed as a unified process whose various elements mesh with each other.

Accordingly, the working out of curricula, the designing of training programs in the teaching facilities, the didactic and methodological viewpoints, and finally the design and course of the training process must all be regarded as tasks for socialist collaboration of all higher educational personnel involved. Faculty councils and sections have as their assignment the development of modern and rationally designed teaching programs by means of socialist collaboration of all teaching personnel. Collaboration is also a basic prerequisite for increased efficiency in research and swifter results in relationship to practice. Prof. Weissmantel made this point effectively. The development of collaboration and socialist relations among people must be -- I draw this conclusion from the discussion -- a governing principle in the leadership activity of rectors and deans, of section chairmen and institute directors, of all professors and dozents, and, last but not least, also of the party organizations of the SED and the Free German Youth.

Fifthly, the Conference displayed the aspirations of higher educational personnel to perform their tasks so as to produce optimum benefit for the German Democratic Republic. It is gratifying that several speakers at this Conference stressed the problems of applying the new economic system of planning and direction to higher education and of the effectiveness of teaching and research. We must start with the recognition, however, that the universities and colleges receive a substantial share of national income for the performance of their tasks in teaching and research.

As more qualified graduates take up jobs in plants, offices, and research and development facilities, as their work becomes more efficient, and as the results of research are more swiftly applied, the greater will be the contribution of scholars in higher education to the improvement of conditions for the attainment of maximal income. This is what is at stake when the demand is made that the economic plan be respected as a law and that the new economic system of planning and direction be applied. We must overcome the habit of accepting prolongations of the period of study and, as happens in some of the technological disciplines, accepting a not insignificant number of premature exmatriculations. It is well known that the success quotas of individual disciplines differ widely. The consequences of premature exmatriculation for educational costs are shown by the fact -- I refer to the state of affairs in 1965 -- that dropouts raise the cost of a graduate of higher education by 16.5% for students in residence and by 28.1% for those in evening and correspondence study.

I cite this example to reinforce the demand of the State Secretary that scholars and students, workers and staff of universities and colleges, leading comrades and all colleagues in the State Secretariat be guided increasingly in their work by economic considerations.

Increased efficiency also requires that teaching be brought up to date, be carried out by the most rational methods, and be geared to the future. I recommend that the commissions for education and training and the sections of the scientific bodies improve their comprehension of the content of academic work in Soviet higher education. The contents of their educational programs should be carefully analyzed and compared with the content of our teaching programs in order to buttress our own views by means of additional knowledge. We pay too little attention to the experience and new discoveries of Soviet higher education in working out new programs, in setting new educational patterns, in developing new fields of study, and in raising the level of education and of scientific organization of teaching. The anniversary year of the Great Socialist October Revolution provides an occasion to utilize and further expand the friendly relations between institutions of higher education in the German Democratic Republic and the Soviet Union.

Honored guests, dear friends and comrades! The most noteworthy feature of this Conference, in my opinion, was that many speakers concerned themselves with questions of socialist education. I do not wish to repeat all that has been said about the tasks of faculty councils, the role of the social sciences, the unified direction of intellectual and cultural activity, and the activity of the FDJ. All of this must be very carefully evaluated.

Teachers, students, and social organizations in the colleges and universities have a joint responsibility for socialist education. Every professor must be aware that he is not only a scholar but also an educator. His attitude has an encouraging or inhibiting influence in the development of socialist consciousness of the students and young scholars who are close to him. He can do justice to his role as educator only when he takes as point of departure the needs and demands of socialist society. Many senates of universities and colleges have issued resolutions and adopted measures to encourage faculty members to acquaint themselves with Marxism-Leninism. That is correct; for when one wishes to educate young people for our socialist society one must know the scientific basis on which that society is built. The academic must take pains to achieve for himself a firm class orientation. He impedes the development of socialist consciousness, indeed in the final analysis does harm, when he educates students to an intellectual position that lies between the fronts, that is to say in an ideological no-man's-land.

What Lenin wrote 65 years ago in his work, "What is to be Done?", applies more than ever in view of the class struggle between socialism and capitalism in Germany. Lenin wrote: "the *only* choice is -- either bourgeois or socialist ideology. There is no middle course (for mankind has not created a 'third' ideology, and, moreover, in a society torn by class antagonisms there can never be a non-class or an above-class ideology). Hence, to belittle the socialist ideology *in any way, to turn aside from* it in the slightest degree means to strengthen bourgeois ideology." Socialist education, education for a firm class orientation, education for a profound love of our socialist German Democratic Republic, is in large measure also a responsibility of the students and their socialist youth organizations themselves. It is very gratifying that the Central Council of the FDJ communicated to this Conference its constructive suggestions for the implementation of the "Principles."

The majority of students regard their studies as a social compact with the working class. These students are filled with the consciousness that they study at a university or college chiefly to prepare themselves with exhaustive information and deep knowledge to serve our socialist fatherland and the socialist cause.

At this Conference we have heard the representatives of these socialist students. I should like to charge all these students and FDJ representatives who are filled with the militant socialist optimism of youth: dear friends, you dare not be content so long as some students become debtors to our society through capricious behavior and poor academic performance or injure the reputation of our educational institutions by aping decadent western habits and by unworthy conduct. The party organizations and the Free German Youth must work actively to achieve a rapid and enduring improvement in the class conscious socialist education of all students.

In his speech on the occasion of the twentieth anniversary of the reopening of the Technical University in Dresden, Comrade Walter Ulbricht enumerated the demands that our socialist society makes upon graduates. He stressed above all that our society needs a graduate "who has a profound grasp of Marxism-Leninism, who takes a class-oriented position in our national struggle, and who understands the connections between politics, economics, ideology, and science." (Walter Ulbricht: Wo stehen wir bei der Verwirklichung des Programms des Sozialismus? Berlin: Dietz Verlag, 1966, p. 14.)

In order to be able to take a clear class-oriented position one must above all start with a proper understanding of power relations and perspectives of social development.

We live in the period of transition from capitalism to socialism.

Despite certain setbacks and inhibiting factors, the economic, political, and military power relationship in the world continues to change in favor of socialism. This change becomes all the more clear as instability increases in the most important capitalist countries.

The U.S. imperialists seek to impede the continued growth in the strength of peace, democracy, national independence, and socialism; and by their criminal aggression against the people of Vietnam they seek to spread fear. In the process they exploit the anti-Marxist and anti-Soviet policy of the Chinese leaders, the group around Mao Tse-tung. But they cannot influence the development of the socialist world system or the growth of the communist movement in any fundamental way.

In view of the military strength of the USSR and the Warsaw Pact members, U.S. strategy is aimed currently at bringing about a change in power relations in Europe, operating in collaboration with West German imperialism and with political and ideological means. The Kiesinger-Strauss government is trying to mask its policy of revenge, aimed primarily at the GDR, the USSR, Poland, and Czechoslovakia, by talking about a readiness to reduce tension. In fact it is implementing a further development of state monopolistic rule, with the help of a Social Democratic minister of interior, in order to be able to effectuate an expansionist course in external affairs.

The revanchist character of Bonn policy was revealed again when Kiesinger insisted in the Bundestag on Bonn's claim to the sole right of representation and when Barzel uttered wild insults against the Soviet Union and the GDR. The claim to sole representation is simply an element of revanchism and neo-Nazism, the growth of which in West Germany prompted the Soviet government to issue its warning of 30 January.

The well known West German scholar and sociologist of education, Georg Picht, wrote in the January number of Merkur: Whoever has watchfully followed the political development of the Federal Republic in the last three years must have noticed how the wave of a new German nationalism gradually developed....Nationalism has again become a central problem for Germans (read: West Germans --K. H.)."

Picht sees clearly that one must set a recognition of realities in opposition to this deceptive and dangerous neo-Nazism and that one can neither change the fact of the GDR's existence nor avoid the problem of recognition, even if one does not sympathize with socialism.

A union of the socialist German Democratic Republic with an imperialist West Germany is unreal. At present and probably for some time to come it will be possible for the two German states and the special territory of West Berlin to normalize their relations on the basis of peaceful coexistence, but this only if Bonn renounces its policy of revenge.

Recognition of realities requires also that the completely different social and intellectual situation of scholarship in the two German states be acknowledged. Several speakers in the discussion have forcefully opposed the fairy tale of a single German scholarship.

Georg Picht writes in the aforementioned article: "Any renewal of the German spirit depends upon the removal from public consciousness of those deceptive illusions of nationalism that have been darkening the skies over our country like a poisonous vapor."

This characterizes at the same time the situation in West German educational institutions. They are used by the governing system of state monopoly to train manpower for all sectors of society and are, at the same time, hatcheries of the anticommunist doctrine of the Bonn government with its neo-Nazi, neo-colonial, and antihumanistic goals of militarism and imperialism. That is their social function in West Germany. Picht is quite correct in his insistence that it is time to eliminate this poisonous vapor. But that will only be possible if scholarship deserts imperialism -- a necessity that German history of recent decades clearly places on the agenda.

We have completed this renewal, that is, the transition of scholarship from the camp of imperialism into the camp of socialism. It is yet to come in West Germany. We have placed scholarship -- as this Conference demonstrates -- in the service of social progress and humanity, thereby pointing scholarship in a direction that accords with its very nature.

Honored guests, dear friends and comrades! The pace at which our German Democratic Republic advances depends in large degree on your work in the universities and colleges in teaching and research, in socialist education, and in the vital connection of higher education with the practice of socialist construction. At the same time that has great influence on West German development. The example provided by the GDR as a whole and by its higher education in particular will help to solidify the peace-loving democratic and humanistic forces in West Germany. It will assist the working class and also the intelligentsia to realize that in West Germany too the imperialist ruling system must be eliminated in favor of a socialist course. We are firmly convinced, and with good reason, that this will happen; for history does not make a detour even around the West German Federal Republic. Socialism is West Germany's only real alternative.

In conclusion I should like to try to summarize the basic challenges that have come out of this Conference. It appears to me that there are five principal tasks that should govern your efforts in the coming weeks and months and particularly in the last phase of preparation for the Seventh Party Congress of the SED:

1. Achievement of a rapid and enduring improvement in class-oriented socialist education and in the planned development of the academic and productive activity of students in order to bind them more closely to the various and interesting problems of socialist practice. It is essential to relate academic youth to the socialist educational goal set by Comrade Walter Ulbricht in his address of 4 November 1966.

2. The goal-oriented completion of predictive evaluations for the further development of science and higher education, for the regulation of expectations and objectives in higher education and fields of specialization as well as in the educational content of the individual phases of academic study. This task includes the discernment of emphases and concentration in research and the full application of socialist collaborative work.

3. The working out of scientific principles and methods of planning and direction in higher education in accordance with the bases of the new economic system of planning and direction.

4. Securing high productivity in teaching and research,

chiefly through improved direction of scholarly work, through maximal plan fulfillment, and through rational utilization of available personnel, material, and financial support.

5. Faculty support for the acceptance of Marxism-Leninism through the creation of a system of political and social education and continuing education.

Higher education must, on the basis of this Fourth Conference on Higher Education, be completely encompassed in the overall social system of socialism. By endorsing the "Principles" we have continued in the direction set forth in the Law on the Integrated Socialist Educational System, we have given precision to the assignments of higher education as contained in that law, and we have closed the gap that still existed in the overall system. That is the sense and the aim of this Conference and of the "Principles."

The Central Committee of the Socialist Unity Party wishes all those engaged in higher education great success in the realization of new higher educational goals, in the development of scholarship in our socialist German Democratic Republic, and in their personal life.

"Declaration" of the Fourth Conference on Higher Education to the Seventh Party Congress of the Socialist Unity Party of Germany*

The greatest revolution in Germany's history has occurred in the German Democratic Republic in the past two decades. We higher educational teachers of the German Democratic Republic participated actively in this transformation in a unity of aim and conduct with the workers, peasants, and other economically active people. In this joint endeavor we created, under the direction of the working class and its party and in alliance with the Soviet Union and other socialist countries, the sovereign socialist German Democratic Republic, the first peaceable state in the history of Germany. The Seventh Party Congress of the Socialist Unity Party will concern itself with the further social development of the German Democratic Republic toward the realization of socialism. Cooperation in these tasks requires the creative initiative, the predictive understanding, and the collaboratively gained knowledge of all scholars. From each of us is demanded a deeper understanding of the laws of socialist construction and of social development in our era as it was begun fifty years ago with the great socialist October Revolution.

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*Prepared by an editorial commission chaired by Prof. Heinz Sanke, Rector of Humboldt-University, Berlin, and including Professors Günther Heidorn, Rector of the University of Rostock; Hans Jäckel, Rector of the Technical College, Karl-Marx-Stadt; Heinz Simon, Rector of the Medical Academy "Carl Gustav Carus," Dresden; Herbert Steininger, Director of the Institute for Marxism-Leninism in Humboldt-University, Berlin; and with Dr. Heinz Engelstädter, Head of the Division of Philosophy and History of the State Secretariat for Higher and Technical Education, as secretary.

Our experiences, reflections, and suggestions for the further development of teaching and research in our state were incorporated in the "Principles for Further Development of Teaching and Research at Institutions of Higher Education in the German Democratic Republic." They showed the way that universities and colleges will follow in this stage.

It is our social duty to train and educate a responsible young intelligentsia, imbued with love and loyalty toward our socialist state and with great respect for working human beings, an intelligentsia striving to apply all knowledge and capabilities for the welfare of the people and the progress of mankind. Our objective is to train specialists for socialist society who possess the highest scientific knowledge and who are enabled by the study of Marxism-Leninism to participate creatively in the determination of social progress.

When we look at the West German Federal Republic, we are filled with deep concern and indignation over the unhealthy shadows of revanchism and neo-Nazism which hide the already weak light of truth, democracy, and freedom. The ruling imperialist forces of the Federal Republic, which twice in this century have brought national catastrophe and untold misery to other people, are still pursuing a policy of reaction internally and of expansion outwardly. Between the socialist German state and the imperialist German state there exists no so-called all-German mutuality.

The humanistic vocation of the scholar requires a decision for the path of reason, peace, democracy, and social progress. More than a few West German academics recognize this and seek to avoid the dangers threatening their country. They have our sympathy and solidarity.

We scholars of the sovereign socialist German Democratic Republic recognize our great responsibilities. We accept them completely and offer our entire capabilities and knowledge to strengthen our socialist fatherland in all ways through optimal utilization of teaching, training, and research and to contribute all of our strength to the victory of socialism. The great value that the government of the German Democratic Republic and the party of the working class accord to the needs of science we wish to reciprocate to the Seventh Party Congress of the Socialist Unity Party of Germany by undertaking to develop our universities and colleges as centers of creative intellectual and cultural life, centers above all concerned to assist creatively in bringing about an educated socialist nation.

IV. Implementation of the Higher Educational Reform

A. "Socialist Higher Educational Reform in Action"*

Our socialist higher educational reform has taken shape. The path toward modern, socialist universities and colleges has been followed over the past weeks and months. The basic ideas of the reform, announced in the "Principles" discussed at the Fourth Conference on Higher Education and endorsed by the Seventh Party Congress of the SED, have given impulse to the broad and powerful movement produced by all elements of higher education and producing out of its initial results, in turn, additional momentum for the tasks awaiting us. The time is past for individual attempts to solve narrow problems in the hope of coming closer to the fundamental problems. In the participation of higher educational personnel in the spirit, thoughtfulness, and activism of the discussion leading up to the Conference and the Seventh Party Congress, important insights were gathered and basic changes were initiated. It all turns on the effectuation of the underlying political objective of the higher educational reform: to shape the GDR's higher educational system as an organic component of a developed socialist form of society.

*Unsigned article from Das Hochschulwesen, Vol. 16, No. 3, March 1968, pp. 147-152.

The universities and colleges have begun in this fashion to implement the socialist constitution of the GDR. Creative discussion of the draft constitution displayed in all institutions the readiness and determination to exert the fullest energy in accomplishing this great work. The higher educational community shares the overwhelming engagement of the whole population in implementing the socialist constitution, an involvement that was manifested in thousands of discussions, in the representative conferences of citizens, and in the vote of 6 April which constituted a demonstration of the loyalty of all citizens of the GDR to their state.

The socialist constitution of the GDR is aimed at the fashioning of a developed social system and the completion of socialism in the GDR. The fundamental problems of social prognosis contained in the constitution give rise to the tasks facing higher education. Science and education are to be developed, as the constitution states, with the objectives of defending and enriching society and the life of its citizens, of mastering the scientific-technological revolution, and of assuring the steady progress of socialist society.

The solution of higher educational tasks is of profound importance for all of society. The education and the scholarly achievements that come from our universities and colleges take on increasing weight as the GDR grows stronger and as the scientific-technological revolution unfolds.

With the rise of science to the status of a principal productive force in society, it also acquires increasing importance in the class struggle with West German imperialism. It is already a decisive factor in that struggle. All the problems of science, higher education, and the scientific-technological revolution are elements of that class confrontation. Thus, the tempo and quality of the socialist transformation of higher education are determined not only by the internal development of socialist society but also by the objective requirements of class struggle. Whatever is decided about technical and professional questions in higher education, whatever changes are introduced and accomplished -- it all is part of the class differences fought out mainly in the realm of material production.

We possess all of the prerequisites for success in this struggle. We have the firm alliance between working class and intelligentsia, socialist ownership of the means of production, and socialist productive relations. We have the willingness of higher educational personnel, grounded in the ideas of Marxism-Leninism, to contribute their energies for the developed socialist society; and in the "Principles" we have a conception of the path leading to a modern socialist higher educational system. We shall know how to use these advantages in solving the issues objectively facing us. Revolutionary and class-conscious conduct of people in higher education thus includes, under present conditions the consistent and stubborn expenditure of effort in behalf of the developed socialist system of society, the implementation of the scientific-technological revolution, and the speedy effectuation of the higher educational reform. No scholar in any discipline and no student can avoid the struggle; they are all caught up in it more than ever before. Each one contributes by his activity and the fruits of his work to the development of the socialist German state and to the weakening of West German imperialist power.

With the West German transition to a sharpened policy of expansion, the ruling class introduced certain changes in higher education described as a reform. But the purpose of these changes was not to create conditions enabling scholarship to do justice to its humanistic tasks or to serve peace and social welfare, but rather to integrate higher education further into the ruling imperialist system and to enlarge scientific potential useful to the aggressive plans of West German monopoly. Measures taken to increase achievement in West German higher education have been reinforced with all conceivable means -- state power, economic coercion, and massive ideological pressure -- in opposition to democratic forces.

This increased involvement of West German higher education in Bonn's expansionist course stands in crass opposition to the real interests of workers, scholars, and students in West Germany. It does not even offer the basis for a higher educational reform. Progressive democratic thinking in West Germany is thus brought to the realization that a proper reform of higher education depends on social reform and a democratic, anti-imperialist transformation of social relations.

It is not surprising that the GDR reform of higher education is watched closely by democratic forces in West Germany and is increasingly viewed as a genuine alternative. The faster our universities and colleges develop and the more the contours of our higher educational reform emerge, the greater is their effect as a model.

The tasks that are now being solved at a rapid rate in GDR higher education are substantively governed by the social prognosis reaching to 1980 and beyond. The predictive dimensions of thought and the treatment of problems in terms of the future must be characteristic attributes of every discussion, every preparation for decision, every active measure.

Progress in this transformation of thought has already been recorded. The breadth and variety of creative ideas, will to achieve, and constructive action on the part of higher educational personnel are obvious to all. One dare not of course underestimate the difficulty and complexity of this process. It depends finally on breaking with ideas that have had validity and have often worked well for decades, not only breaking with them intellectually but also drawing the corresponding conclusions about new ways of behaving. While nothing that is valuable should be discarded, by the same token nothing that has been surpassed from the standpoint of prognosis should be preserved.

We are not helped by the retention of socially ineffective conditions and developments that have been overtaken; only those tasks are decisive that emerge from prediction of a future state of development. The faster we rid ourselves of ballast, the better will higher education be able to contribute to the shaping of a developed socialist society.

The consequences of prognosis are profound, precisely for the universities and colleges; and they affect not only the Humboldt-University in Berlin, Friedrich-Schiller-University in Jena, and the Technical College "Otto von Guericke" in Magdeburg, the institutions on which the models of a socialist institution are to be worked out, but also higher education as a whole.

The prerequisite for the speedy solution of all problems of education and training, academic life, and planning and direction of a socialist institution is the permeation of all these processes by Marxist-Leninist ideology.

A high degree of Marxist-Leninist consciousness among faculty members and young scientists, as well as fundamental knowledge of the laws of social development, are preconditions for the fulfillment of the university's main task of training a new generation of highly qualified specialists corresponding to the model of the socialist scholar and engineer presented by Walter Ulbricht to the Seventh Party Congress. Special significance must be accorded in this connection to the systematic and planned Marxist-Leninist training of higher educational personnel, in order that they may honorably fulfill their socialist educational assignment on the basis of Marxist-Leninist theory and from the standpoint of the working class.

The following are the main points governing the further implementation of the higher educational reform in the GDR:

1. The shaping of education and the development of research must be oriented to the production of pioneering accomplishments of world importance in scholarship and of students trained to the highest world level of knowledge in all the basic fields; further, they must contribute, through the rapid technological turnover in scientific knowledge, to making science a basic element of production. Proceeding from socialist prognoses about society, plans for education and research must be substantively renewed and freed of old ballast. Only in this way can the requisite increase in efficiency of teaching and research be reached. All experience indicates that this task can be performed satisfactorily for society only when socialist practice plays a central role in the design of teaching and research, for the preparation of scientific specialists and leading cadres for practice is the chief assignment of higher education. Special importance accrues thereby to the Marxist-Leninist science of organization. During their academic careers, students of technical, economic, agricultural, mathematical, and natural scientific specializations must be equipped with these instruments of modern direction.

It follows that the concentration of research in crucial fields must be furthered. Outstanding achievements will ordinarily be recorded only by large, efficiently organized and directed research collectives. Mini-institutes and outmoded styles of thought will not solve the problems of the future. Sections and large institutes are appropriate structures for achieving concentration.

2. It is especially urgent to develop teaching and research in critical fields more rapidly and efficiently, notably in economics and socialist theory of economic organization, in Marxist-Leninist science of organization, and in technology. Teaching and research must be so designed that students learn to participate in shaping the socialist economic system and to apply socialist science of direction in practice. Socialist theory of industrial organization must be reworked from the ground up. Also to be refashioned is the Marxist-Leninist science of organization as an application of principles and methods and of the scientific organization of leadership in shaping the economic system.

3. Further to be developed are the varied associations of higher education and its sections with plants, state enterprises, combinations and their institutes according to the conditions of the socialist economic system. The contractual arrangements used heretofore for specific tasks have proved inadequate in terms of prognosis. These connections must be developed in two senses. First, it is vital that practical institutions exercise a crucial and responsible influence on education, on the planning and execution of research at universities and in their sections. That will direct education and

research more strongly to the central problems of economic and social development and to the creation of scientific and technological pioneering. Second, university and college faculties must be brought responsibly into the solution of decisive problems in the practical realm. This will come primarily by including scholars in the councils of state enterprises, by cooperative work in prognostic teams, and by the effort to apply important scientific findings to production. The scientist is thus enabled to fight for the application of his scholarly knowledge to practice and so bring to fruition the new ideas that emerge from the scientific-technological revolution. The institution must accordingly consider such factors as location, emphases in economic development, and the cultural and intellectual situation in establishing their connections with practical endeavors.

4. In executing the higher educational reform, attention must be paid to the improvement of democratic centralism in planning and direction at universities and colleges. Proven principles of scientific leadership, as they have been utilized in the economy, especially in industry and agriculture, must be adapted so as to be usable in universities and colleges. The best method for applying these principles of leadership is to observe them in the form of their most progressive experience. That requires the utilization of new methods as established in Marxist-Leninist science of leadership and organization.

These assignments, summarized here in concise form, allow great room for the creative initiative of all higher educational personnel.

The way to the liberation of all potentialities is the further development of socialist teamwork and of the most effective forms of democratic participation and consultation. All problems and decisions, all phases of planning, and the consideration of alternatives in the preparation and execution of decisions can be dealt with successfully when all the elements of higher education, including students and employees, participate actively in the process.

The development that has been discernible in recent months shows that the path to a modern socialist higher education can be successfully pursued.

B. "Highest World Standard in Teaching and Research"*

The Politburo concerned itself in the period reported on with questions of the execution of the third reform of higher education and with basic issues regarding the overall development of higher education from 1971 to 1975.

Since the 6th Plenum gave general direction to the process of higher educational reform in the GDR, visible progress has been made in the transformation of higher and technical education in the framework of a developed social system of socialism. Further implementation will be determined by the substantive problems of teaching and research.

The basis for determining instructional content and research assignments must always include the highest world standard and the prognosis for development of the social system of socialism, especially the structurally decisive branches of the GDR economy. But that requires a more precise prognosis for higher and technical education itself and the resulting profiles and contents of academic work. These tasks must be worked out by the Research Council and the Ministry for Higher and Technical Education in cooperation with other ministries. The level of research determines the level of training. The scientific-technological revolution demands the development of research-oriented teaching. Teaching and research must form a unity corresponding to the highest world standard. Students must encounter practice early by becoming involved in the projections, developmental work, and research of various units of industry and other branches of the economy. That is why economic entities must enter into research contracts with institutions and sections of higher education.

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*Extract from the Report of the Politburo to the 9th Session of the SED Central Committee, 22-25 October 1968; reprinted from Neues Deutschland, 23 October 1968, in Deutschland Archiv, Vol. I, no. 9, December 1968, pp. 9[illegible]4-60.

Proceeding from prognostic requirements and the effort to maximize efficiency in training, most academic institutions fashioned new programs of basic study that went into effect with the opening of the new academic year. An important task now is to develop new technical school plans of study in direct contact with practice in order that they have a headstart toward effectuation. The branches and combinations of industry and the technical ministries must exert greater influence than heretofore in recognition of their responsibility for the training of future graduates.

The fashioning of new plans of study requires utilization of the most modern scientific fields and the implementation of socialist collaboration in productive scholarly work. The increase in efficiency of academic work depends largely on the success with which instruction is designed to incorporate the most modern didactic-methodological principles. Therefore, much greater attention has to be given to rationalizing instruction, programming the subject matter, and introducing modern methods and materials of instruction. Such materials can only be developed in close collaboration with the technical ministries and the main units of the economy.

With the formation of new directing forms and levels in universities and colleges, the first preconditions were forged for scientific direction of science as a productive force. The task now, starting in the Ministry for Higher and Technical Education, is to raise the entire leadership system to a higher level. That requires a planned and disciplined investigation of inner laws, relationships and dependencies, and the methodology and organization of science itself in order that the most modern and efficient organization of science can be implemented in practice.

In the context of the higher educational reform, much greater attention must be given to continuing education for scientists. The achievement of highest levels of accomplishment in research and teaching depends in large measure on the ability of scholars to measure their own work constantly against the highest world standard. But that can no longer be achieved merely by the individual perusal of the literature or by visits to congresses. Systematic continuing education for scholars in fields which serve to uncover new knowledge about science and technology on a world scale has become an absolute necessity.

The Ministry for Higher and Technical Education must therefore develop, in cooperation with the Research Council and the Ministry for Science and Technology, a system of continuing education that contains substantive as well as methodological stipulations for the scientist. Equally necessary is the transmission of newest knowledge and methods in the system of continuing education.

The consistent implementation of the higher educational reform also requires a transformation of engineering and technical colleges of the GDR in order to do justice to the predictable demands of social development in the qualitative and quantitative training of scientific cadres, especially in technology.

It is necessary to increase the pace of training for a large number of production-oriented and scientifically trained technicians, above all for the structurally decisive specialties, and to develop some engineering schools into engineering colleges. The efficiency of training will be raised by a new design for engineering studies that takes account of the needs of the future and makes optimum use of the instructional materials.